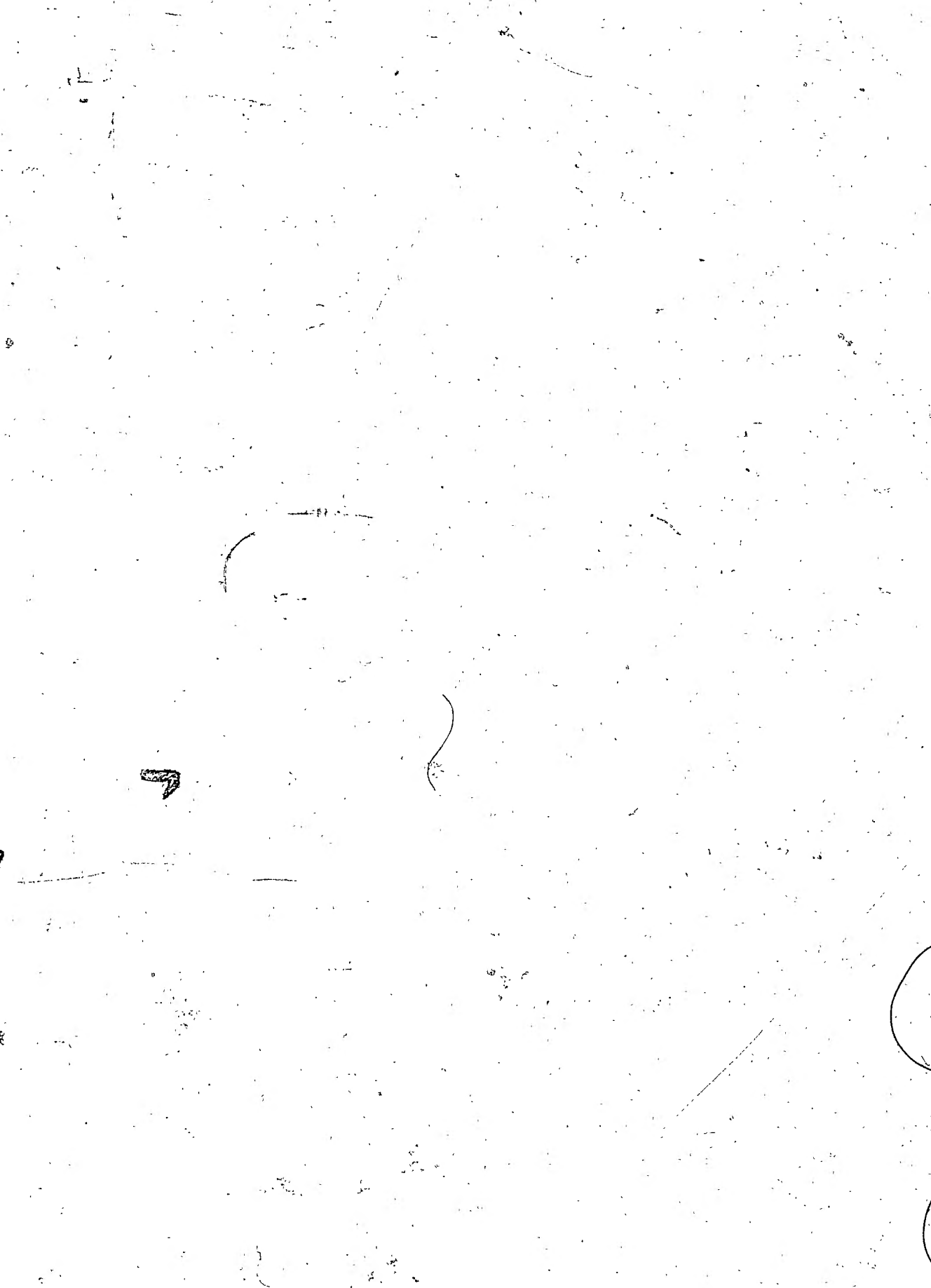




GOVERNMENT OF WOMEN
IN MANITOBA





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3/Reports, No. 19.

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P. 476.



The Honourable John Bracken,
Premier of Manitoba.

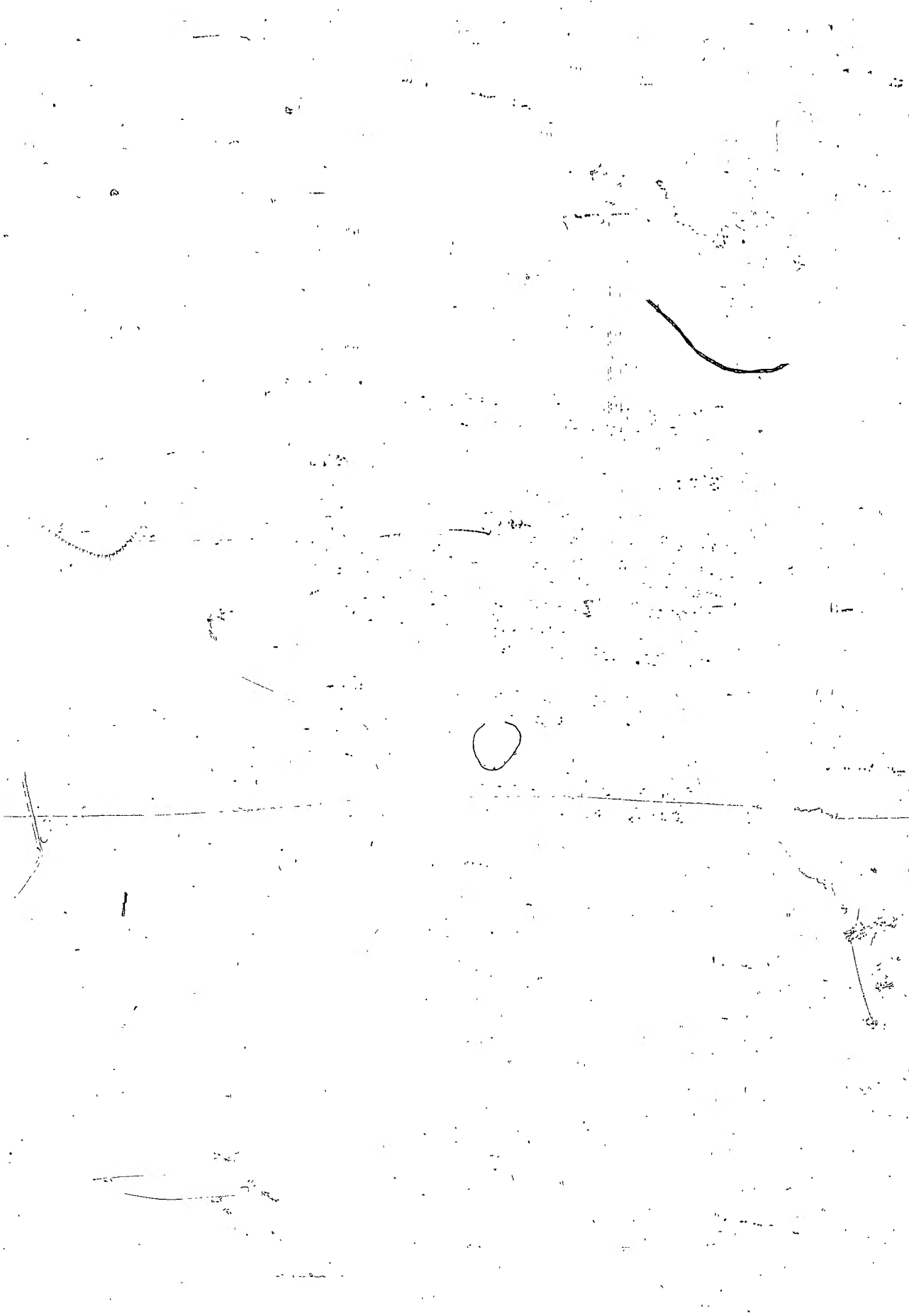
Sir:

I have the honour to submit herewith a report on Employment of Women in Manitoba, being Project No. 18 under the Economic Survey, and the nineteenth of a series of reports covering many phases of the economic and social life of the province. This report is the work of Mrs. Asta Oddson.

I have the honour to be, Sir,
Your obedient servant,

H. C. Grant,
Acting Director.

Winnipeg, Manitoba,
March, 1939.



EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN MANITOBA

- by -

A. Oddson

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to acknowledge the valuable assistance of Ethel B. Merifield, Librarian, Department of Labor, Ottawa; Idele Wilson, Research Assistant, Queen's University, Kingston, and W. Hutchinson, Director of the National Council, Y.W.C.A. Toronto.

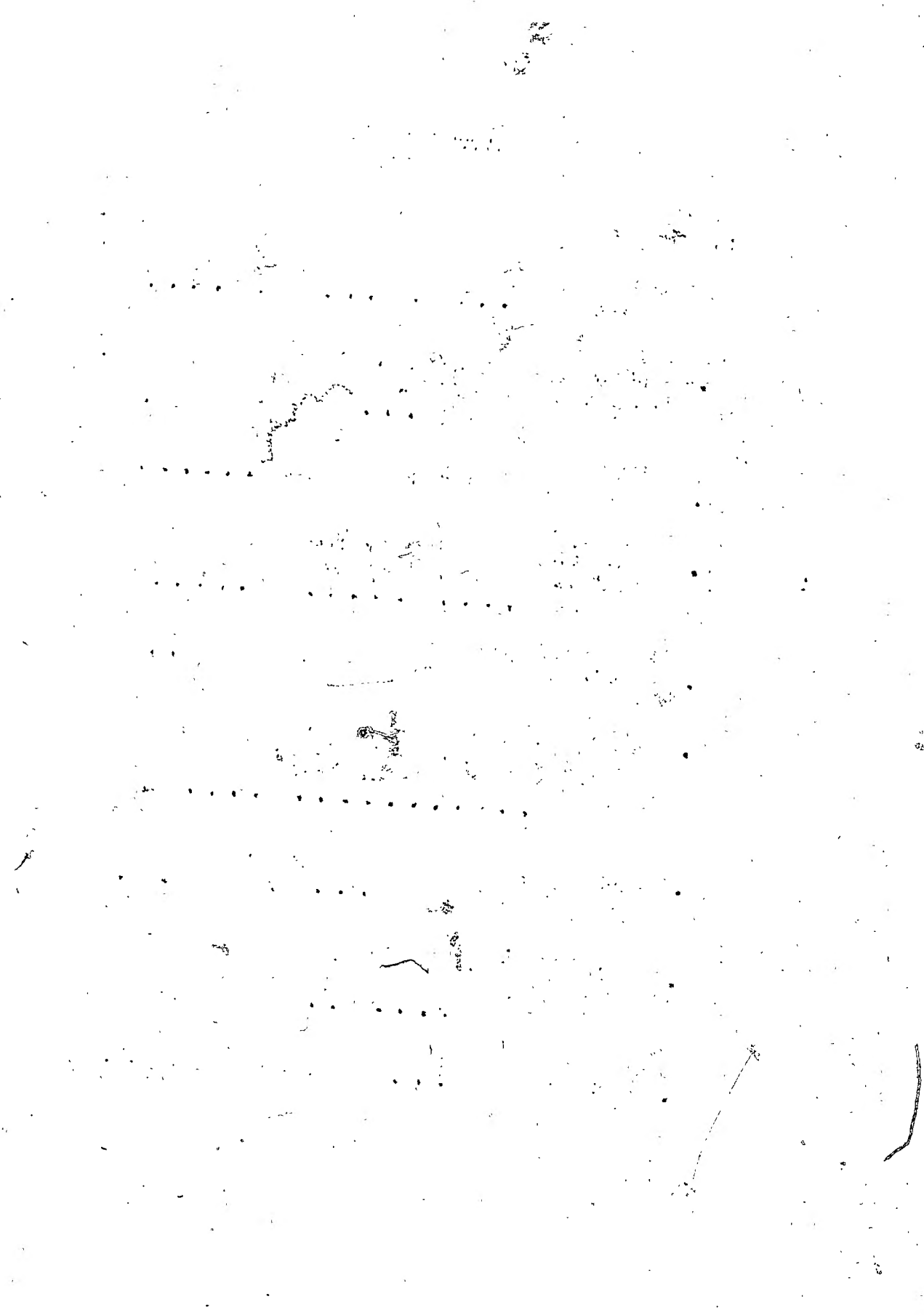
Special thanks are due to C. B. Davidson, Director of the Manitoba Economic Survey Board, for statistical material and helpful suggestions; and F. Shefrin and J. Chernick for constructive criticism.

Responsibility for views expressed, however, is that of the writer alone.

Published by
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Chief Research Associate - H. C. Grant.

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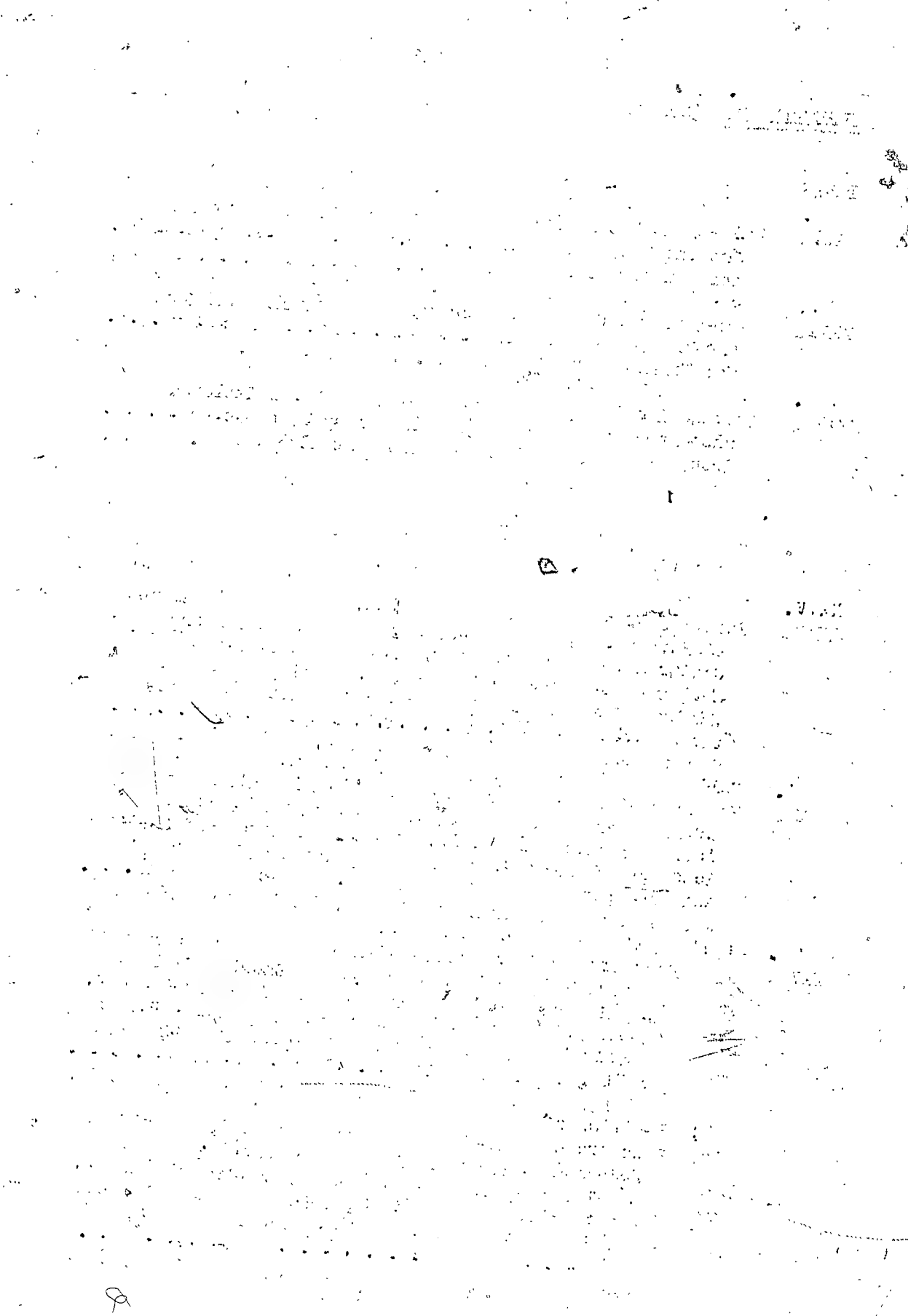
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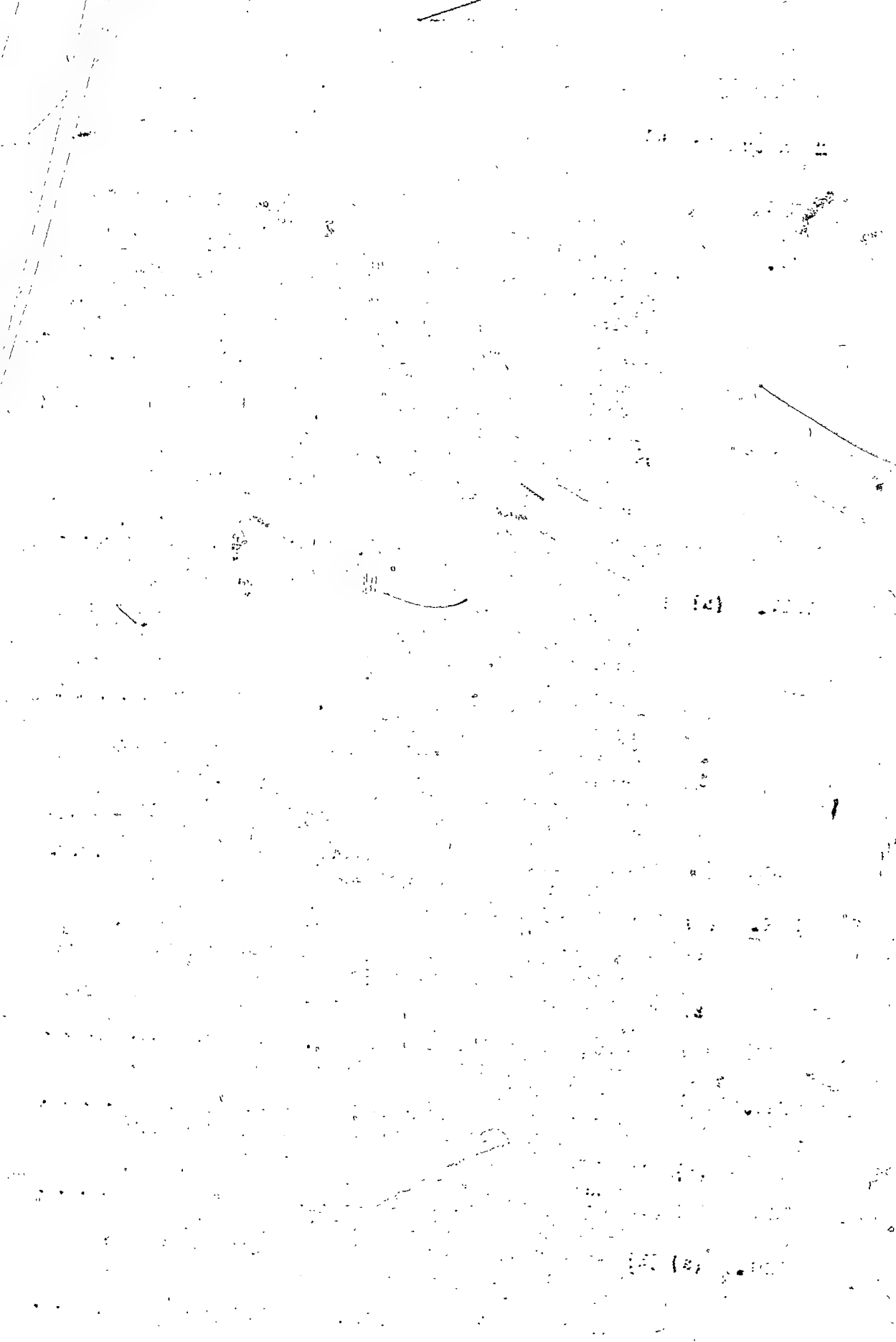


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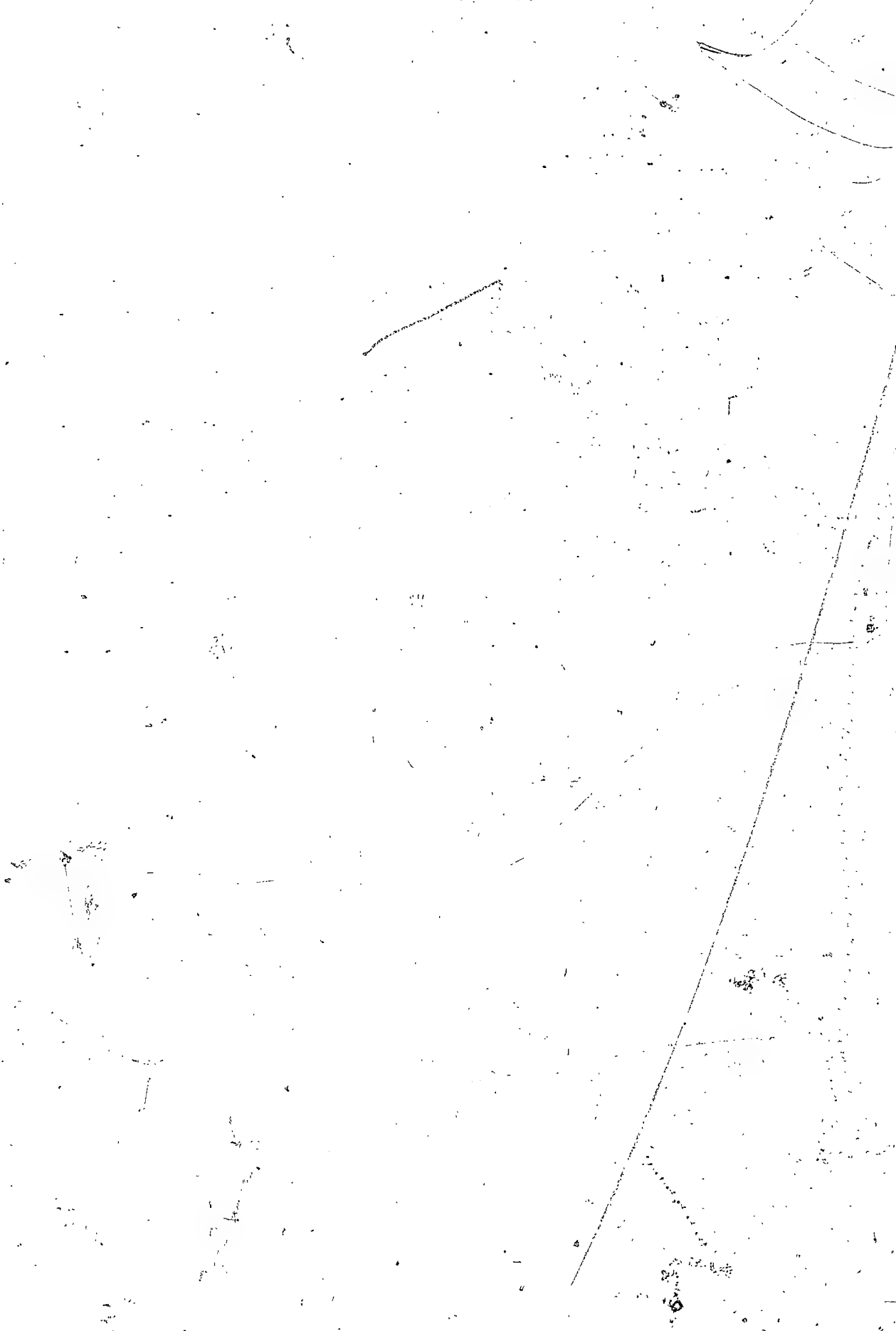


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EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Introduction

No analysis of employment or unemployment is complete until proper consideration is given to the question of gainfully employed women. Throughout industry women have played an important part. The circumstances and conditions surrounding their employment have always been a matter of public, and in more recent years, government concern. While the greatest number of women find full time occupations in the home, there has been a considerable percentage of women who for many years have sought and made a place for themselves in occupations outside of the home. This is true in Canada and in Manitoba where approximately 20 per cent of the female population of employable ages is engaged in industrial or other occupations.

The range of gainful employment for women in Canada is fairly wide. Women today are found in the professions, in executive positions, in office work, industrial occupations and in domestic service. Although women enter a wide range of gainful occupations, the relative numbers in many are small. The majority of gainfully employed women are, in the main, concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations.

There are many problems associated with the employment of women, especially in industry. Generally speaking, women work for fairly low remuneration, and often for long hours per day. This being so, there is always the possibility, and in many cases the actuality, of exploitation of female labour. Another factor which affects employment among women is the fact that the female working population at any time is not clearly

defined, and under certain conditions and for various reasons the number of women available for employment may increase or decrease sharply. In other words there is not the same rigidity in respect to the supply of female labour that there is in respect to the supply of male labour.

For instance, in times of depression more women become available for employment than during periods when economic conditions are better. During the past seven or eight years many women have sought occupations, having in mind primarily not their own maintenance, but rather the express purpose of adding to depleted family incomes. In such cases they sometimes work for less than appropriate returns for their services. It is therefore not at all unusual that the pressure of women upon the labour market becomes more severe when there is widespread unemployment among the male population; this results from the effort on their part to compensate for the loss in income of the male wage-earner.

For these reasons, among others, the question of employment and unemployment as it exists today among women is surrounded by special circumstances and conditions and merits separate treatment. It is, therefore, the purpose of this analysis to consider the general question of the position of women in industry, the part they are playing in the economic life of the community, and to indicate some of the problems associated with their employment in Manitoba.

CHAPTER 1

HISTORY OF WOMEN WORKERS IN ENGLAND AND THE GROWTH OF REGULATIONS GOVERNING THEIR EMPLOYMENT

THE FACTORY ACTS

"Based on the principle that British people take with them in settling a new country the laws of the Old as they then existed, the laws of Manitoba are the laws of England as they stood in 1870, except insofar as such laws have since been amended or added to by the Parliament of Canada, or the legislation of the province".^I

For this reason we find that any comprehensive study of women in industry in Canada, or in Manitoba, should take into account an historical background whose roots lie in Mediaeval England. In the evolution of industrial organization there appear to be four stages, the "household", "the guild", the "domestic" and the "factory". "The guild system was most widely prevalent in the Middle Ages, the domestic system in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, and the factory system in the nineteenth century; but all stages of industrial organization overlap".²

The earliest English folk were occupied almost solely in agriculture. They farmed for subsistence and not for markets and profits. In their life and work the function of women was a very important one.

Under the manorial system in the early Middle Ages, even women of the gentlefolk led a busy life. Once wedded a girl had to undertake very serious responsibilities associated with a gentleman's household. While their husbands were away from home the business of the house and estate

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1. "Manitoba Laws" Miss Mildred McMurray, B.A., L.L.B.
 2. "The Economic History of England" - Lipson.



was most efficiently transacted by the women. They also had a share in public affairs in various ways; for instance, sharing in the election of the church-wardens, and this at a time when the work of the church-warden was very important indeed. Women of the nobility too, could act as sheriff of the county or marshall or high constable, all important and difficult offices. At that time each community was largely self-sustained and this period is referred to as the "Household Stage of Industry", where the motive of production was to serve the needs of the household.

THE GUILD SYSTEM

The craft guild represents a vital stage in economic evolution. It represented an attempt to solve the industrial problems of the Middle Ages. In the effort to provide a fair remuneration for the worker and to reconcile the conflicting claims of producer and consumer, there developed principles of industrial control and conceptions of wages and prices which are still of profound significance. The essence of the craft guild lay in the fact that the trading and handicraft functions were vested in the hands of the master craftsman, who bought his raw material from the producer, fabricated it into a finished product, and then sold it to the consumer. So long as the market was limited, and capital played little part in industrial development, the guild system answered to the needs of the time. Whatever its drawbacks it has bequeathed to us the ideal of technical training and sound craftsmanship - an ideal binding on all who work with hand or brain.

Specialization gradually increased production and surplus goods were sold at the fairs and markets. But there were no factories. Industries were in the hands of craftsmen working at home. The women, in addition to the cares of the household, shared in all this work. At this time the work

of the house was not clearly isolated from the work of the shop. Both went on side by side. Much of the detailed work of the house was, in fact, left to the girls and the housewife was thus permitted to work with her husband in the production of goods for sale.

So far as membership was concerned, the guilds rarely made any distinction between husband and wife. Generally speaking, women obtained membership in a guild through husband or father. But there were certain restrictions which made the work of women the only casual labour available, with the result that women and girls occupied an inferior position in all matters of trade and industry and were often engaged in occupations for which they were little fitted. However, at all times during the Middle Ages, we find women engaged in various trades; often pursuing them separately from their husband's occupation, taking their own apprentices, holding their own property and responsible for their own debts as independent traders.

GROWTH OF TOWNS

Coincident with the establishment of the guild system came the growth of English towns which had for centuries been scarcely more than villages. The mercantile privileges of a town came to be vested in a body known as the merchant guild, the fundamental feature of which consisted in the exclusive right of its members to buy and sell without toll. The growth of this mercantile group was partly the result of expanded trade, incident upon the many wonderful geographical discoveries of that period. An ever increasing market and a corresponding increase in production made the investment of capital a very profitable venture.

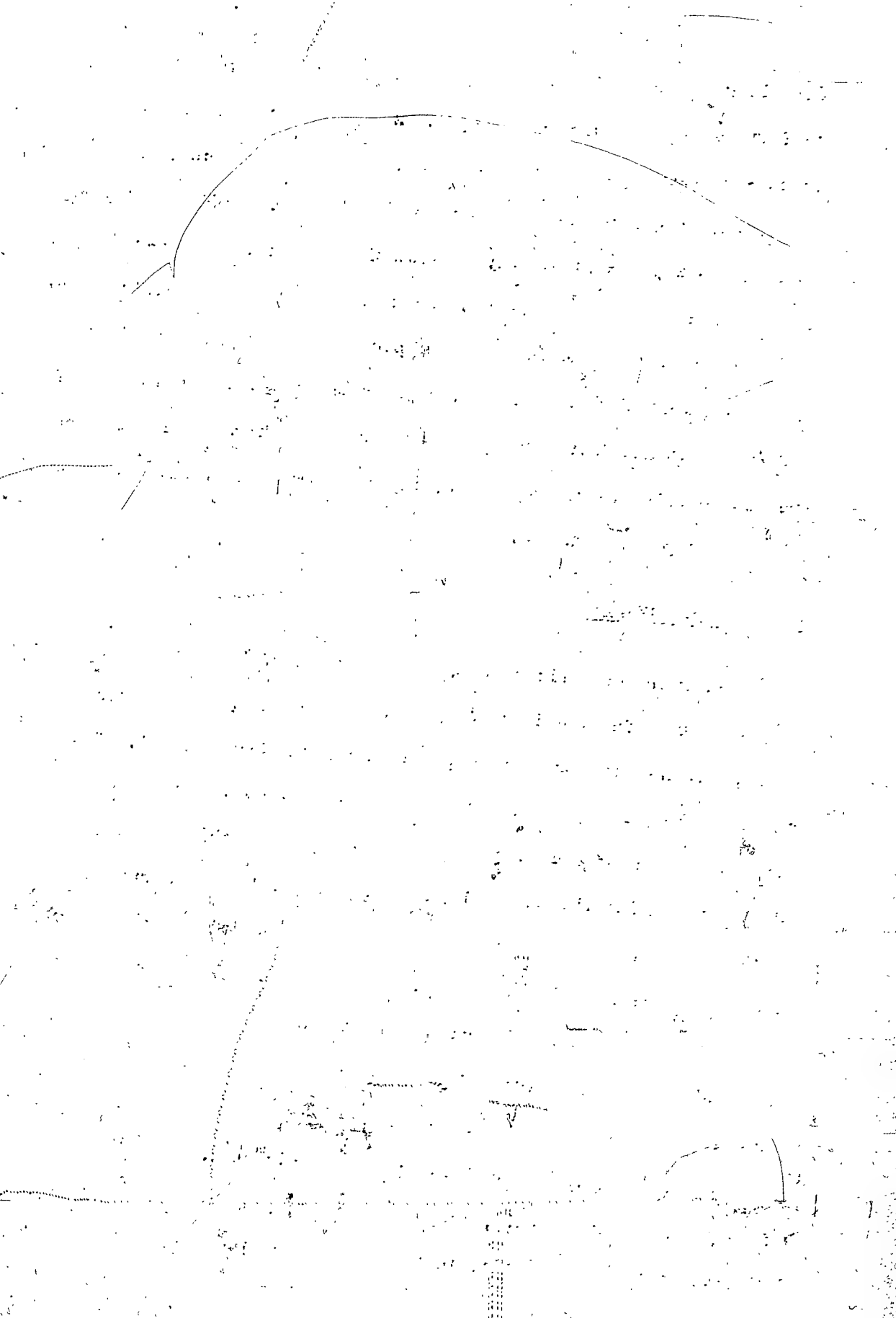


This increase in wealth was accompanied by a rise in the standards of comfort for these well-do-do people. A stigma began to be attached to trade - suburban homes became fashionable - wives lost contact with and so were no longer capable of carrying on business. There was increased wealth, and a plentiful supply of domestic servants. Middle-class mothers and daughters had little to do that was useful, they lost their economic independence and became in a measure parasites dependent upon fathers or husbands. This cleavage has persisted to the present day in spite of modern educational advantages, the extension of the franchise to women and the lowering to some extent of the barriers against their development on an equal plane with men.

THE DOMESTIC SYSTEM

Under the domestic system, the ownership of capital was divided. The manual workers furnished the fixed capital in the shape of tools and work-rooms, and the entrepreneur supplied the circulating capital. The craftsman lost his economic status and became a wage-earner. In the domestic system of industry as differentiated from the craft system, the clothier supplied the material and marketed the finished article; the workers were concerned only in the making of the article, and in the wage they received for their work. This mode of production has prevailed up to the present time in certain industries.

An important feature of this period was the great advance made in trade. Equally important but not as well recognized, however, was the tendency for the family to live as an economic unit. The labouring man's family was a working unit, the income a family income. It is too often assumed at the present time that the male has always been the sole family



wage-earner, and that any variation from this rule is a new departure in economic status. This conception works especially to the detriment of women.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

With the great mechanical inventions of the industrial revolution; and the introduction of factories, which came with the use of steam as power, the domestic system of industry tended to disappear. The great changes in methods of work had far-reaching consequences on men, women and girls engaged in industry. The factory introduced the trend away from small work and towards the introduction of machines, which involved the disappearance of the old system of a family wage. Girls became more independent of the family at an earlier age. With the rise in the standard of comfort of the well-to-do and with the grouping together of people in towns, much of the work formerly done in the house itself went into factories and workshops. In very many ways people became accustomed to buying services for themselves, and this growth of services came into town life at a much earlier time than into the country.

The changes to factory labour were full of evil consequences for all children were concerned. Although parents were often the better off in the treatment of their own children, there is no doubt that however poor the conditions were in the domestic system, the industrial revolution certainly added to the horrors so far as women and children were concerned. There was a great deal of labour shifting due to the fact that women and children worked much more cheaply than men. Many men were thrown out of employment; the need for the money earned by women and children became very great, so the old family life of the domestic system was broken down.

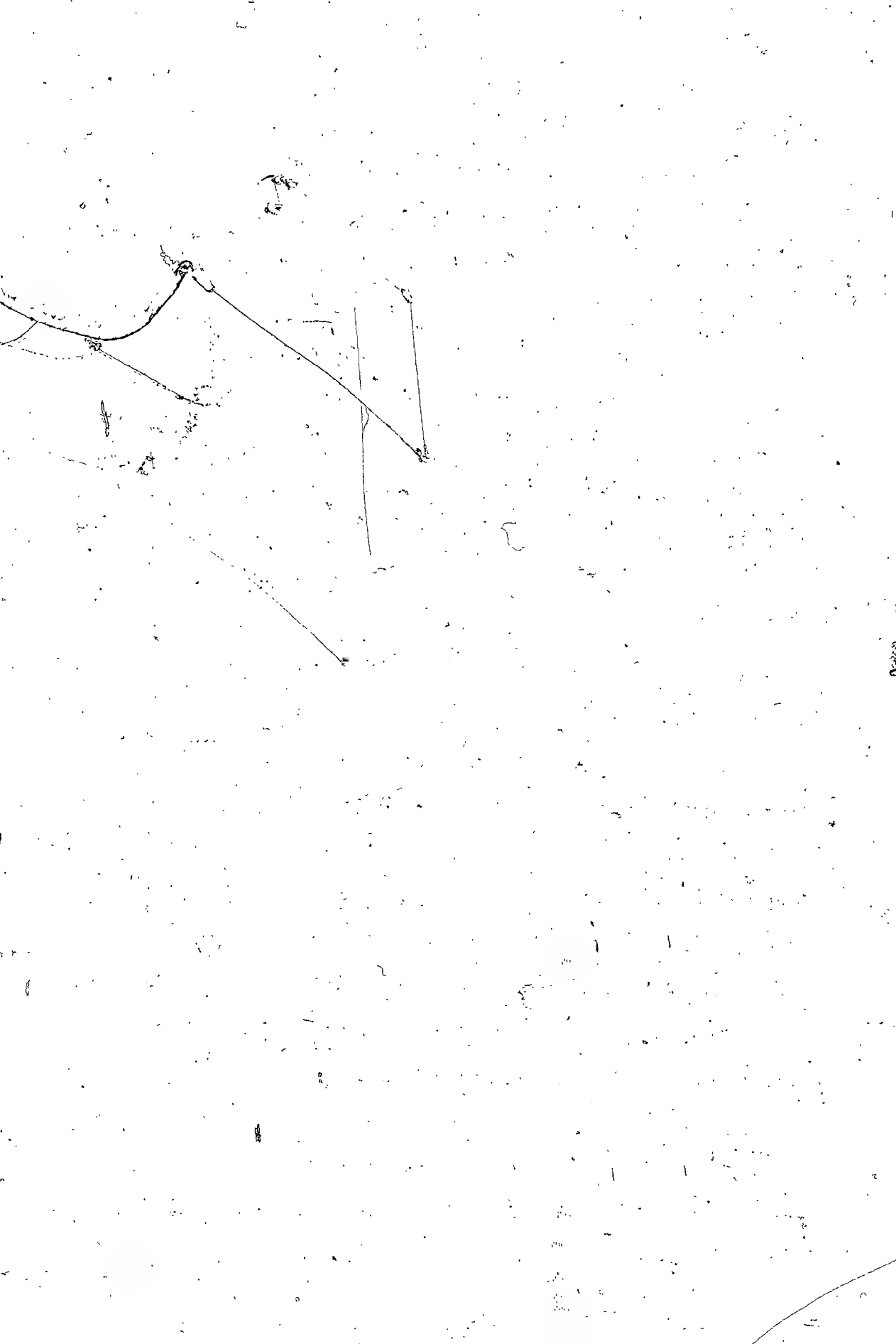


Coincident with this movement in industry, the closing years of the 18th century were difficult ones for the agricultural labourer. The tax on imported corn made the price of bread almost prohibitive; the new wave of land enclosure took away the use of the common lands; the spread of the industrial revolution began to strip the farm labourer of the by-industries in which he and his family had engaged. Wages were still fixed at a level which did not recognize the loss of these other sources of income. Although both wages and prices kept rising throughout the Middle Ages, at the end of the 17th century prices had risen one-third but wages only one-sixth, rendering the condition of the farm labourer hopelessly wretched. The result was a tremendous influx into the manufacturing and factory towns.

THE FACTORY SYSTEM AND THE ENGLISH FACTORY ACTS

In England during this period reforms did not come about through any abstract idea of social justice or the rights of man, but each law was a practical remedy for a proved wrong. Factory legislation began, in fact, with the protection of the tiny class of pauper apprentices in textile-mills. In 1802 an Act of Parliament restricted the hours of labour of these poor pauper apprentices to 12 hours per day, forbade their working at night and made provision for better workshops and sleeping places, as well as for some education. The definite and avowed object was to protect the health of the young and weak, and marks a new departure from previous legislation. The act itself produced little change in factory conditions because no adequate administrative machinery was provided.

The Althorp Act of 1833 restricted the hours of labour of children from 9 to 13 years of age to 48 hours weekly. No person under 18 was to be



employed more than 12 hours a day. Itinerant inspectors were appointed with powers to enforce the law, making possible a great advance in administrative efficiency.

Factory legislation as regards children was no doubt retarded for generations for want of an effective Education Act. Regulations of a very drastic nature for women in mines were demanded, and granted, before even the least restriction of factory women's hours had been attempted. The Lord Ashley Bill of 1842 excluded women of all ages, as well as young children of both sexes, from underground work in the mines. Adult women first came under a Factory Act in 1844 when they were included under the same regulations as young persons. By 1850 no woman or child could work in a factory except between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m. in summer and 7 a.m. and 7 p.m. in winter, with no Saturday work after 2 p.m. The ingenious device of classifying women with young persons, while it proved a lever in forcing protective legislation, reacted at a later date against the woman worker by depriving her of adult status.

Since 1850 improvement has been almost continuous, and the better conditions have been extended to other occupations which needed them quite as much, if not more, than the textile industries. In every industry in which women and children were employed labour legislation has been found necessary.

The early factory movement was an emotional, religious, and charitable one. In later years society has been studied from a scientific point of view, and it has become more and more evident that a great deal of ill health, disease and consequent waste of human life has been due to preventable causes. More recently another idea has assumed prominence; namely,

that much of this disease and want cannot possibly be eradicated by individual effort alone, but requires a concerted and well thought-out attack from the reasoned sense of the community as a whole.

Although fortunately laws relating to wages, Truck Acts, Particulars clause, Trade Boards Act, etc., were and are applicable to men and women, the latter have proved but poor bargainers on their own behalf. They have been weak in furthering their own welfare in the matter of wages, but in England great assistance has been given by the women inspectors. According to one of these "a thriving manufacture cannot be built upon the labour of depressed and half-starved workers."^I The real problem according to her, is to assure the worker a minimum wage and to defeat evasion by unreasonable or unjust employers. Certain charges upon wages (fines, damages, etc.) were especially harassing to large numbers of women and a long battle (1893-1914) was waged to secure the right of the worker to "free control of her own earnings, unhampered by any condition as to where and how they should be spent".²

The lady inspectors, first appointed in 1893, acquired an acquaintance with the human results of uncertain and low wages, peculiarly oppressive to women and young girls. In certain poorly paid industries which often employ women and girls, the Trade Boards fix minimum wages. Of those workers whose wages were thus improved in 1909, 70 per cent were women.

The women inspectors helped in many other ways. They traced the relationship between danger of accidents and conditions of labour, including pressure for output, long hours and very low rates of pay, lighting and management. Employers have been made responsible for compensation to their

-
1. "Women in the Factory" - Dame Adelaide Anderson
 2. Ibid

workers for injuries incurred in the pursuit of their employment; special provisions have been made for persons engaged in unhealthy and dangerous occupations. The day of "laissez-faire" passed away and state regulations became the order of the day.

THE SWEATING SYSTEM

It has been effectively demonstrated that sweated trades are parasitic upon the rest of the community, because after a relatively short period of demoralizing toil, the sweated workers are flung prematurely exhausted upon the social rubbishheap of charity. This subsidy enjoyed by unscrupulous manufacturers enables them to offer their products at low prices, and to secure a wider trade which permits of large profits to investors and high salaries to managers. The Sweating System Report, Labour Commission's Report and the researches of Mr. Charles Booth and others have weakened the superstition about individual liberty as no amount of socialistic theory could have done.

Regulations of Outworkers, 1891, compelled factory operators to keep a list open to inspection of all persons employed. In 1895 they were obliged to send such lists to the factory inspector. In 1901 the occupier and contractor were called upon to send their lists to the district council in which the factory or workshop was situated. The council in turn sent them to the district council in which the workers were resident. The "particulars" clause was very important in that it forced operators to specify the rates and amount of work done, thus enabling the worker to ascertain the exact amount to which he was entitled.



WOMEN WORKERS IN THE 20th CENTURY

The Industrial Revolution continued throughout the 19th century and is but now reaching its zenith. The home life of the towns has changed very considerably. The production of articles of household use, which occupied so much of the time of the mediaeval household, has gone out of the home almost completely. The manufacture of bread, beer, biscuits, confectionery, jams, preserves, pickles, and all kinds of clothing, laundry work, etc., has gone from the home to the workshop and is responsible for the employment of large numbers of girls. Generally speaking, home production remains in the country districts after it has been abandoned in the towns, but now shops are everywhere, and the distribution of these articles again forms an occupation calling for the services of many girls and women.

The effect on women of the gradual change from the domestic system of industry to the factory system has not received the careful attention it deserves. A report of the Women's Employment Committee, Ministry of Reconstruction, England, 1919, reveals "lower grade work and diminished industrial self-respect" for women workers in a large field.

Mechanical power tends to rule instead of servicing in the factory, and the intervention of state regulation merely prevents the more obvious abuses. Even the constructive and efficient application of scientific standards to human conditions of manual work is as yet primarily concerned with mechanical efficiency and economy of output rather than with the well-being of the worker.

WOMEN AND THE WORLD WAR

The immediate effect of the war was loss of employment through the

stoppage of foreign trade. Soon, however, existing surpluses were absorbed and the demand for labour in the munitions factories, nursing, V.A.D., Naval Service, Army and Navy Canteen Boards, transportation and agriculture increased sharply. Domestic service, as a result, lost large numbers. It has been estimated that 400,000 left domestic service, many of whom failed to return as they experienced greater freedom and limited hours of work in the new fields of employment. The work done by women during this period marks definitely the beginning of a new era in the whole question of women's place and share in English industrial and political life. The war went far towards establishing for women a legal claim to a reasonable minimum wage; first, temporarily, when they were employed as substitutes in great organized men's engineering industries, and then through Trade Boards gradually set up in trades where no adequate machinery or organization existed for the effective regulation of wages. Not only did the war provide an incentive to women's work on a scale never dreamed of in times of peace, but it caused women, more particularly those engaged in new occupations, to realize their own capacities as they never did before.

As the war proceeded a new generation of adolescent girls who had never known anything but war-time industry became available for employment. The factory system provided them with opportunities for training by intensive instruction and they laid hold of these opportunities with remarkable aptitude. ~~In a short while they were prepared to substitute~~ for men in the manufacturing industries in order to release them for military service.

The major result as far as women workers were concerned was the discovery that certain industrial processes requiring manual dexterity

and delicacy of touch were more efficiently maintained by the female worker. Intensive training in technical colleges was made available to them, leading to such diversified fields as automobile manufacturing, leather case making and chemical and laboratory research work.

The close of the war, however, witnessed the steady withdrawal of women from employment in men's industries. There was no real fulfillment of the expectation that after the war a body of industrial and operations would open to women, where their war experience could be turned to account. On the contrary, an automatically operating force closed some of these expected new avenues by the "Restoration of pre-war conditions in Industry Act, 1919".

It needed the "second great industrial revolution of the war" to explain that a great deal of women's pre-war industrial work was either more skilled or heavier than had been admitted at that time. Whether skilled or heavy it was indispensable to the success and welfare of the nation into which it entered. The essential social service rendered by labour was publicly recognized in the Great War; the prominence of women's share in it made possible legal provision for their welfare. The war was held where the state began effectually to enforce on all employers certain national standards in hours, health, safety, defence against industrial diseases, and finally against sweating.

One tendency of modern science is towards the invention and improvement of labour-saving contrivances, the use of which, coupled with the continued removal from the home of many of the old household occupations, must mean that housewives will have more and more energies to devote to matters outside the home. Extension of the period of childhood and young



and the pushing back of the age of marriage makes for a period increasingly occupied in industrial or commercial work. It would seem, therefore, that the share taken by women in public and business life is likely to increase rather than lessen as time goes on.

Notwithstanding all the wonderful discoveries and inventions which multiplied man's power to increase the real wealth of the community and along with it, the social well-being and happiness of the worker, the factory system of the 19th century failed largely on the social side. The human agents were no more than "hands". Their moral claim to a secure share in the good things - the wealth and the welfare - that their labour helped to produce, was among the many things denied them. But the past years have witnessed some progress, and with this in mind the working woman looks on to the new position which lies ahead.



CHAPTER 2

A SURVEY OF PROTECTIVE LEGISLATION

The covenant of the League of Nations pledged the signatory powers to the improvement of labour conditions by international regulation. The official body dealing with such problems is the International Labour Office, Geneva. A study of legislation relating to women was undertaken by that body and published in 1932 and a more comprehensive study of the economic status of women has now been undertaken.

MATERNITY PROTECTION

The aim of many of the legislative measures concerning the employment of women revolves about the protection and care of the expectant mother. In 1931 there were forty-five states which were members of the International Labour Organization which had introduced legislation for the protection of working mothers during childbirth. Apart from considerations surrounding the physical well-being of mother and child, such legislation should cover the safeguarding of the woman's job after the legal absence as well as provide for financial assistance. With regard to the latter, many states have devised systems of benefit payments. Two states, Italy and Spain, have set up compulsory maternity insurance schemes for women workers of certain ages and certain wage groups. A very few states, whose number seems to be decreasing, still use the system of relief out of public funds. A growing tendency may also be noted to make the employer responsible for the maternity benefit by compelling him to pay a fraction or the whole of the workers' wages during the period of legal absence; this is the case more especially when women are bound by a commercial

contract of employment. The only regulation of this nature in Canada is the Maternity Protection Act 1921, passed in British Columbia. In some provinces it was decided that the need for such legislation did not exist.¹

Hours of Work.- The regulation of hours of work is of particular importance in the case of women workers, for the reason that they often find other work waiting for them at home as housekeepers and mothers of families when they leave the factory or shop. In many important industrial countries the hours of work of women were restricted by legislation before it was possible to take measures with regard to workers in general. The Factory Act of 1884 in Great Britain and the Act of 1891 in Germany are examples. On the other hand France in 1845 limited the working day of all workers to 12 hours, and in 1892 regulated hours of work for women. In the international field as well, the problem of hours of work has evolved from special to general regulations.²

National Systems of Legislation.- There is a growing tendency to regulate hours of work for all workers in a single national system, and special regulations on the subject may be said to be an historical stage which has now been left behind. The International Labor Conference held in Washington in 1919 is important in this regard. But many of its submissions failed to be ratified by the leading countries of the world. There are a few countries in which the hours of work are limited in the case of women only. Practically all special legislation on the hours of work for women contains provisions as to overtime, intervals of rest, and rules as to holidays.

1. "Women's Work under Labour Law" International Labour Office, 1932. Chap. III

2. Ibid, Chapter IV.

Night work is now considered a special problem, but was at one time linked up with the question of hours of work. Recent inquiries prove that the great majority of women who work at night have only 4 - 6 hours sleep. Special dangers are recognized in this; labor unions and industrialists favour prohibition as far as possible, especially for women.

THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN ON DANGEROUS, UNHEALTHY AND HEAVY WORK

Legislative action in the field of prevention of occupational risks is difficult for it is far from easy to make laws which will meet all the complex facts and to adapt them to the constant changes which occur. A great number of national safety regulations apply to the industries as a whole irrespective of sex. But there are special regulations which concern women only.

Many of the provisions of the multifarious systems of national legislation can be explained only in the light of deep rooted psychological and social causes. The conception which a given people have of the position of women, and the degree of occupational training which women normally attain, (which makes them more or less able to perform industrial work without particular danger) will be reflected in the legislation of that country. Hence, where the occupational employment of women is still in a rudimentary stage and where women have little training, it will be found that their employment is prohibited in a great number of industrial occupations in which they commonly engage in other countries.

Usually protective legislation is enacted only where there is some special need for it and where some evil has to be eradicated. The absence therefor of special legislation in Manitoba, for example, may be said to imply that the need for it has not arisen.

EMPLOYMENT ON WORK INVOLVING MORAL DANGERS

The types of work forbidden for moral reasons differ in various countries and the reason for prohibition may not always be explicitly stated, although it is often quite apparent; for example, the "inclusion in the legislation of several of the Canadian provinces of provisions prohibiting employment of white women in undertakings run by Orientals".

WORK RESERVED FOR WOMEN

China passed legislation that instituted an entirely new method of protecting women workers; firstly, by ensuring them work; secondly, by guaranteeing the dignity of women and, thirdly, by the furtherance of social morality. In Russia too, decrees have been issued to intensify the employment of women workers. Accompanying this has been a development towards furthering occupational training.

WAGE REGULATION

The level of women's wages raises some of the most serious of all labour problems. An examination of the wage scale of women, from the point of view of the cost of living and the needs to be met out of wages, will only too often show - and this has been proved by numerous surveys - that in a great many cases this level falls below the requirements for a reasonable standard of living. The consequences are extremely serious both for the health and morals of women workers who are compelled to live in a constant state of malnutrition and want. Besides, their wages when compared with those of men in similar occupational groups indicate an appreciably lower level. The danger to workers as a whole of the existence

of cheap female labour, which can in many cases act as an adequate substitute for more highly paid labour, is too obvious to be enlarged upon.

In view of these facts and their consequences, the principles of equitable remuneration for work, and of equal remuneration for work of equal value irrespective of sex, are recognized by the state signatories to the Peace Treaty as aims towards which they should direct their efforts. In the legislative attempts being made to ameliorate the lot of workers these principles merit consideration in Canada, as one of the state signatories.

MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION

To a great extent women benefit more than other workers from minimum wage legislation, for there can be no doubt that it is in industries employing women workers that unduly low wages are most often found.

The absence of adequate occupational organization in industry where women are employed is one of the economic and social factors causing a low wage scale. The lack of an adequate organization prevents the workers from having sufficient cohesion to conclude collective agreements in their own interest and ensure the respect of the agreements by all concerned. There is another factor which applies exclusively to the wages of women; i.e., the competition of female workers who consider their wage merely as something extra for the purchase of luxuries and it seriously affects those women whose wage is their sole means of subsistence.

But it is just when low wages are due to the causes analyzed above that the intervention of legislation can be most effective. Legislative action is of little use when the low wages are due to very low output resulting from poor organization of production. Legislation can take full



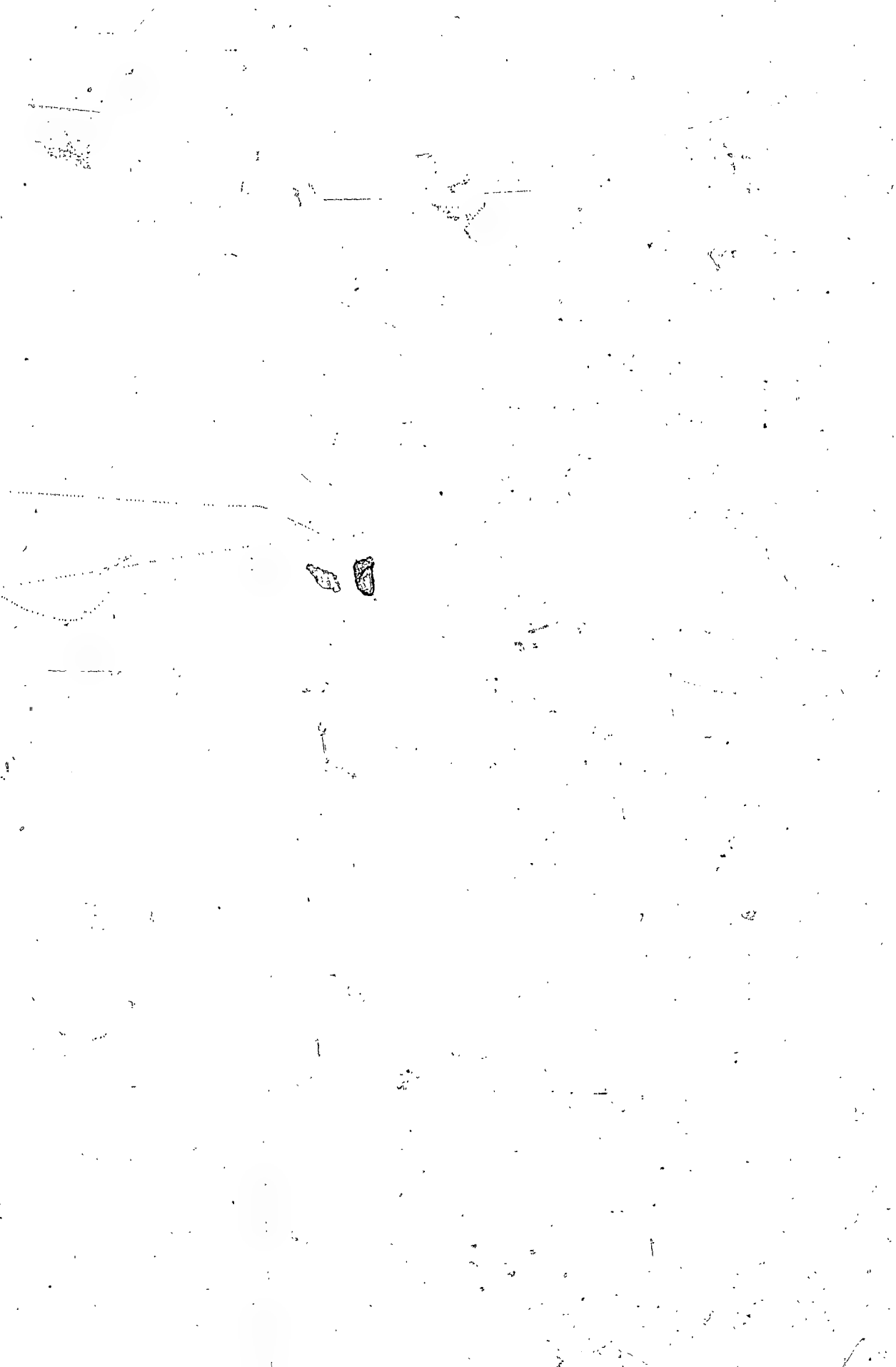
effect only when the wage is really inadequate as compared with the value of the work performed.

The most extensive minimum wage regulations are to be found in North America - seven of the nine provinces of Canada (including Manitoba) and seventeen of the United States of America have adopted legislation concerning the minimum wage of women, and have applied it over a very wide field. The Act of 1918 in Manitoba applies only to wage-earners in mines but contains a provision for the possible application of the regulations to all other parts of the province.

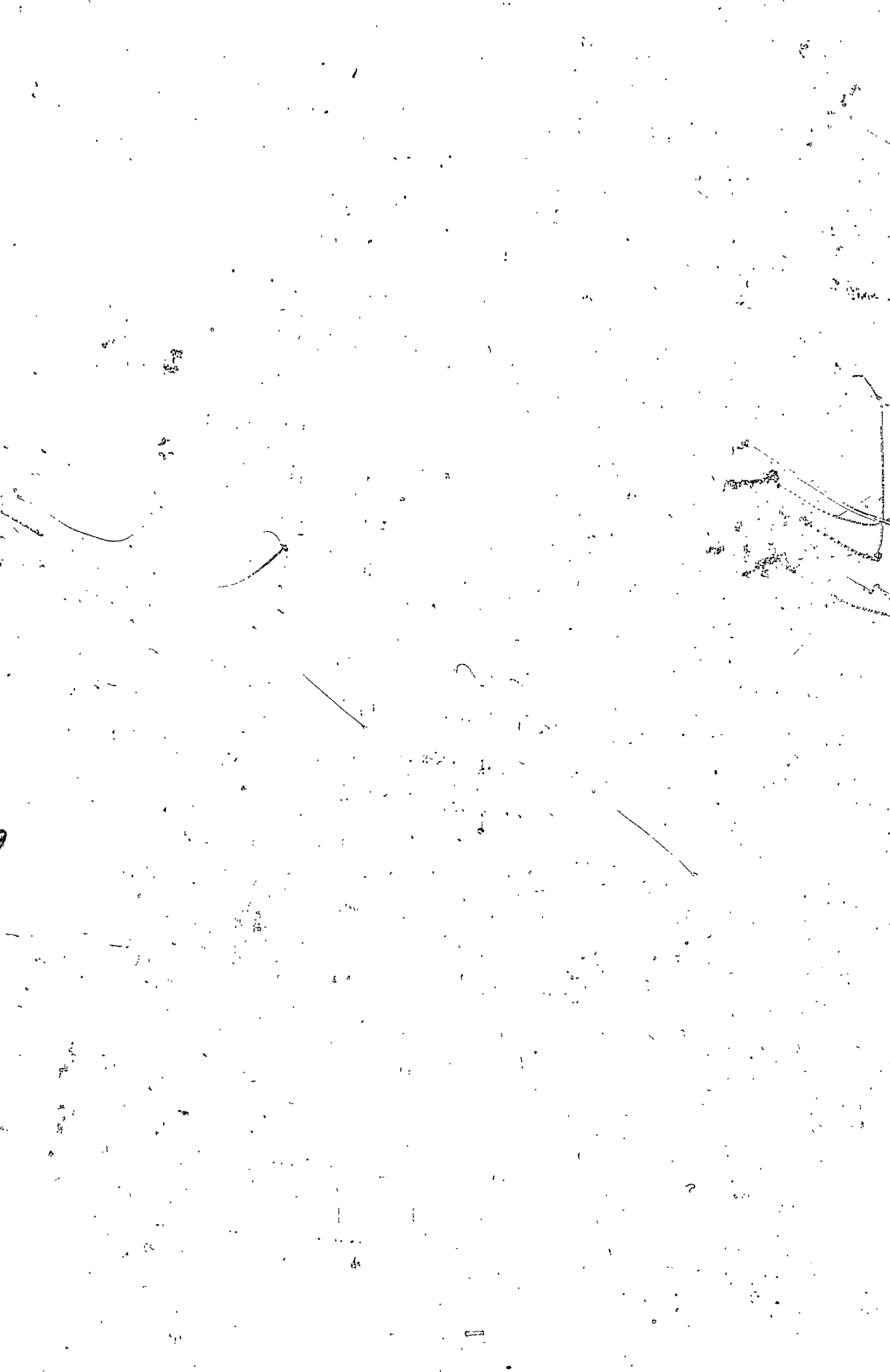
If the minimum wage is to be based upon the actual requirements of the workers concerned, one must in practice either fix a different minimum for each sex, taking into account the approximate distribution of social charges on each group, or else establish a single minimum for all workers. In the latter case this minimum will fall short of the average requirements of a worker with family responsibilities (most of whom are men), or exceed the requirements of workers with no such responsibilities (most of whom are women), or of persons partially maintained out of the wages of some other worker. In neither case can this minimum represent the actual living wage for all the workers concerned - other factors have to be considered concurrently with the workers' needs, such as value of work.

THE LIVING WAGE AND EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK PRINCIPLE

The Peace Treaty advocates "a wage adequate to maintain a reasonable standard of life as this is understood in their time and country".



The difficulty of bringing the principle of the living wage into line with the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value, irrespective of the sex of the worker, is not due to any essential contradiction between two principles. The difficulty only arises when the standard of living of workers of the two sexes is reckoned on different bases. The assumption that the wage of a man must in every case be that of the head of a family, and a woman's wage merely that of a single person with no one but herself to support, has frequently been objected to as being not quite in accordance with the facts. There can be no doubt that a rule based on such an assumption is prejudicial to women having family responsibilities; widows with children to support, mothers with unsupported illegitimate children, women whose husbands are invalids or unfit for work, unmarried women responsible for the maintenance of aged or infirm parents, and so on. In the same way the rule would favour unmarried men. It is true that the development of social insurance (widow's and orphan's pensions, old age, accident and invalidity pensions) reduces to a certain extent some of the burdens which may have to be borne by women workers but it does not do away with them completely. It must also be admitted that the method of fixing remuneration on the basis of the living wage - taken in the case of a woman as being the sum required for the maintenance of a worker dependent on her wages but having no other means of support - nevertheless constitutes an effective safeguard against unduly low wages for women as a result of competition by those who are married or who live with their parents and consider their wages merely as a supplement to the family budget. In fact, in many industries employing women where no regulations exist, wages often fall below the



level of what is required to maintain a woman living alone. Normally custom and family law make family responsibilities weigh more heavily on a man than a woman, and generally speaking women's wages are lower than men's. This situation has been recognized in Europe for many years and a system to overcome the economic handicap of dependents worked out. It is called the Family Allowance System, its basic principle is an equal minimum wage for both men and women and graded allowances for dependents. Various plans have been worked out in France, Switzerland, Poland, Sweden, Norway, Finland, Denmark, Yugoslavia and others.

"The system of family allowances has certain definite advantages when considered in relation to the equal pay for equal work principle. This was pointed out by the Conference of Women Members of the British Labour Party (June 1930). They advocated the system of Family Allowances, claiming that its adoption would remove the anomalies involved in fixing a uniform rate for all workers of the same sex irrespective of their varying family responsibilities, and also the anomalies involved in the assumption that the vital needs of the male worker are always those of the head of a family and that women workers have never to maintain anyone except themselves."

The legislation of Belgium, where family allowances have been widely adopted, contains certain provisions guaranteeing equal rights to the enjoyment of these allowances to workers of both sexes.

The question of wages has been approached as regards women most commonly from two angles. First a minimum wage for women, generally evolving into a general minimum wage law applicable to both sexes. Second, the principle of equal pay for equal work and then the question



of vocational training becomes prominent both from the economic view of maximum output and from the human point of view of the worker.

CIVIL AND POLITICAL STATUS OF WOMEN AND LABOUR
PROBLEM ARISING THEREFROM

The more fully the equality of the sexes is practised throughout the whole of a country, the less reason there is for special legislation.

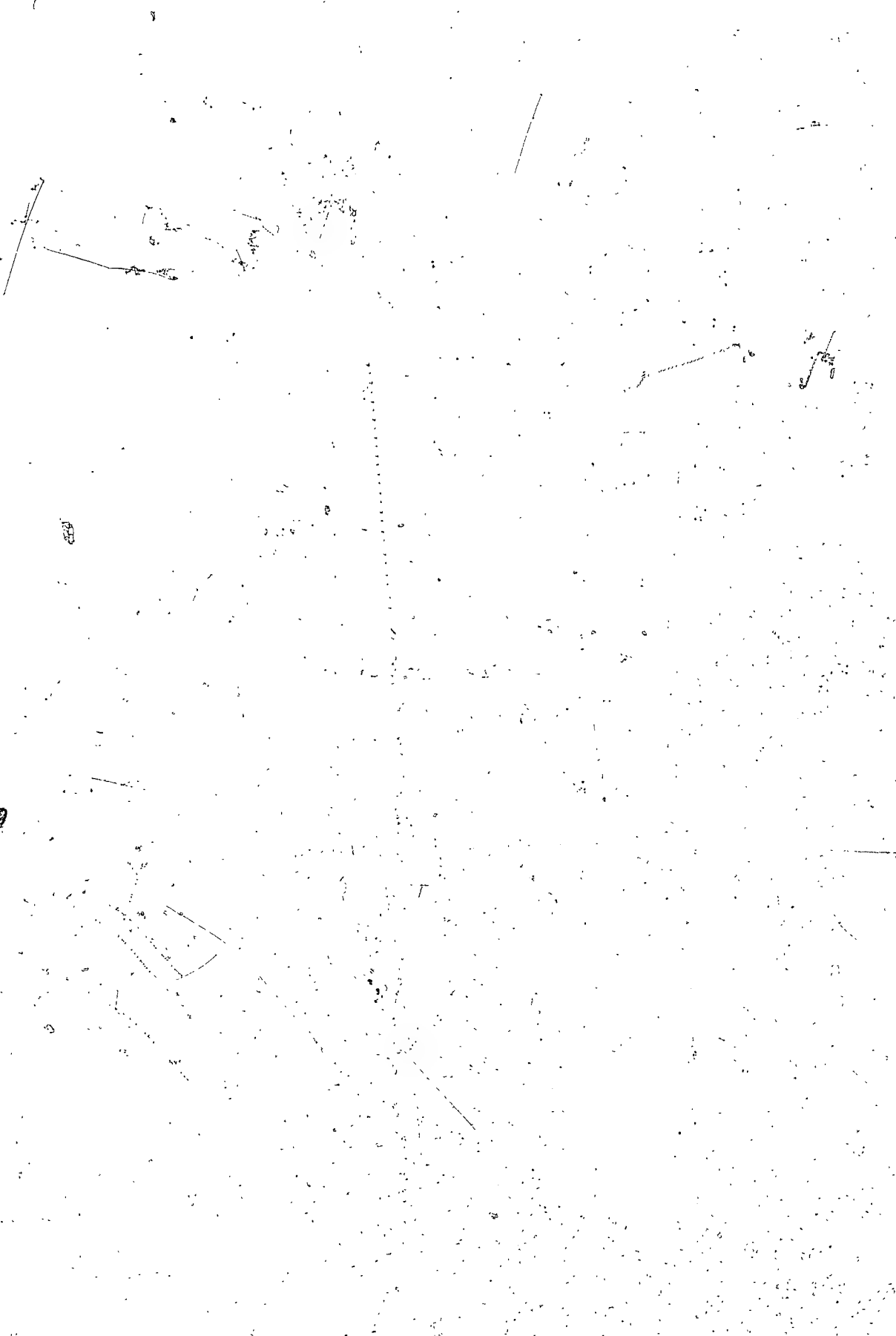
In the four Scandinavian countries, where the political status of men and women is the same, there is no need for any adaptation of labour legislation or for special regulations to emancipate the woman in her occupational life. When dealing with special labour legislation for women it will be necessary to take account of the status of women as citizens, as members of families and as workers.

In countries where the civil code places a married woman under the authority of her husband, the first problem which arises is that of her right to enter any occupation and fulfil the obligations arising therefrom. The second involves her right to dispose of her wages. This problem does not arise where a married woman remains mistress of her property and free to dispose of it, as in Great Britain under the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, the principles of which have now been adopted practically throughout the whole Empire. (In Manitoba, women have equal rights with men of holding property, disposing of the same, or entering into contracts, and this applies to married as well as unmarried women). The third problem is the capacity to take judicial proceedings in disputes relating to contracts of employment. Fourth, freedom of association (a) trade union rights of married women, e.g., province of Quebec recognized the right of the husband to oppose such memberships, (b) membership of co-operative societies - subject to dispute and only defined in a few countries where

woman is subject to the authority of her husband. Fifth, employment of married women. In the midst of the general unrest caused by the growth and persistence of unemployment, the suggestion has been made in certain quarters that those who are presumed to have less need of wages - including married women who are supposed to share in their husbands earnings - should be removed from the labour market. But the contrary tendency towards equality of legal status for both sexes, which has been actively at work for a number of years and has spread more rapidly since the war, is still strongly marked.

Without going into the pros and cons of the question, it may be pointed out that no country has yet attempted the very fateful experiment of prohibiting entirely the employment of married women. There is no legislation prohibiting employers from engaging married women, but there are, or have been, administrative regulations in countries such as Great Britain, and a number of other Anglo-Saxon countries compelling public officials, either in all the public services or in a certain number of them, (teaching, the postal service, etc.) to resign their posts on marriage. Sometimes also the administrative authorities were instructed to dismiss married women first when any reduction of staff was being carried out. Certain large companies have also provided in their internal regulations that marriage may lead to the termination of the contract of employment or dismissal.

No general legislation has been passed prohibiting the employment of married women completely. On the other hand, there are a number of legislative provisions adopted in recent years for preventing the introduction of such rules, or for mitigating the harshness of the practice of



compulsory dismissal on account of marriage. In Canada, the province of Alberta in 1930 adopted an act stating that no person should be disqualified on account of sex or of marriage from holding any public office, exercising any function or occupation, or being admitted to any recognized association. Western Australia in 1923 achieved the same purpose by stating that all sex disqualifications are illegal.

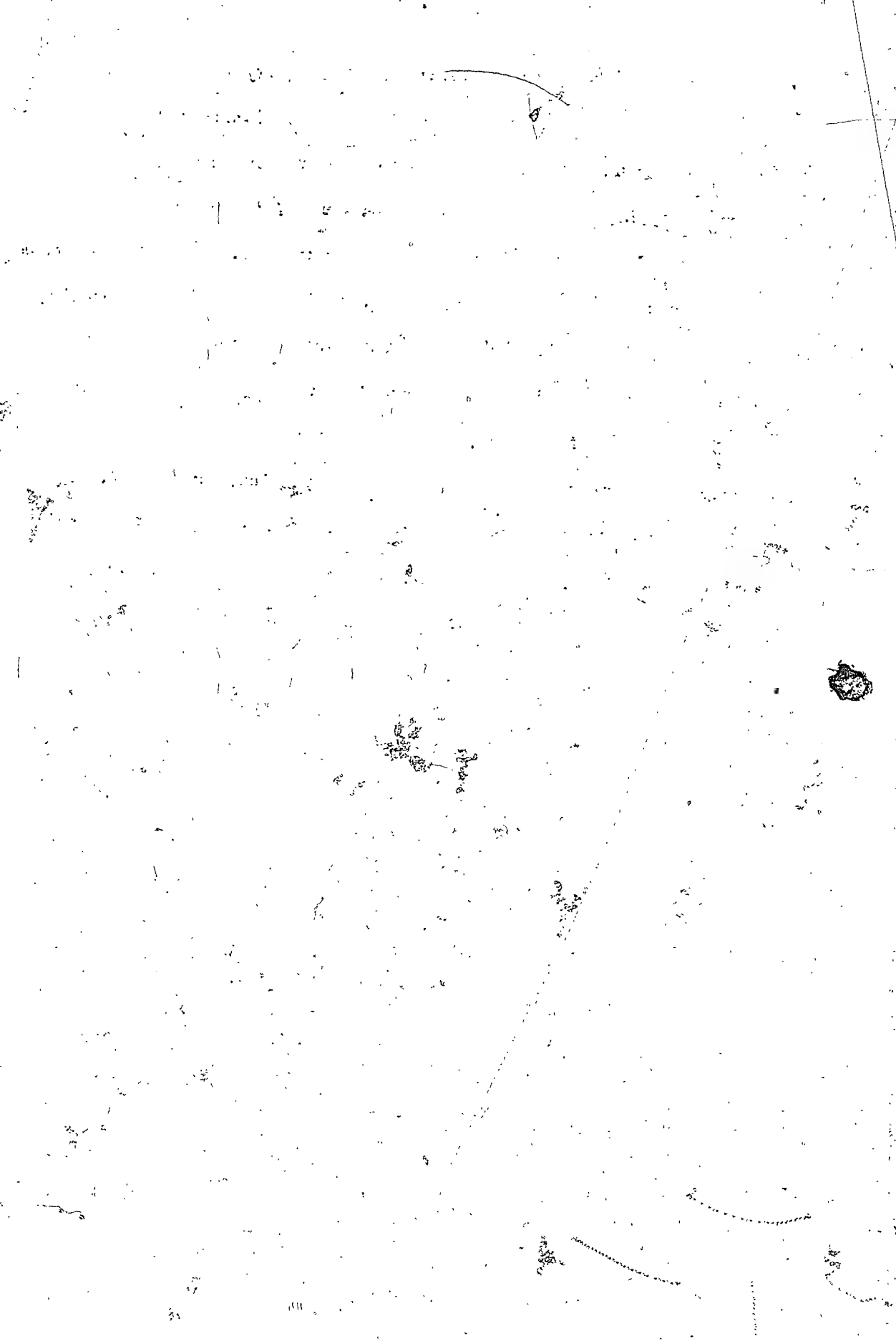
The British Sex Disqualification (Removal) Act has not had such far-reaching effects, because it admits the possibility of regulations being issued by administrative authorities specifying the conditions for the admission and employment of women in their respective administrations.

Reference may also be made to certain legislative provisions which, quite apart from the question of sex, aim at giving priority to married persons over unmarried persons in the labour market, (e.g. Italian Act, 1929).

Variety is the striking feature of legislative provisions and regulations for women's work, and this is due to (a) different stages of social legislation in various countries (b) the fact that they must reflect the social, moral and psychological conceptions which govern the lives of the people and which make for diversity.

If we consider the Scandinavian woman for example, she engages in a variety of activities outside the home, as well as being the equal of man with regard to political, civil and family rights and responsibilities, and is trained from childhood to exercise these rights. She also receives vocational training and learns by experience to take her place in the life of the community, and to use the weapon of trade unionism to defend her occupational interests, just as do her male associates. Contrast with

that the life of an Oriental woman, whose activity is restricted by age-long religious and social traditions to the family circle, and one cannot fail to understand how different the regulations must be that govern the highly developed occupational life of the one and protect the other in her first step toward industrial activity. It is thus necessary to take account of a great diversity of social, economic and technical circumstances before it is possible to judge the beneficial influence of labour legislation from the point of view of women workers. The general concensus of opinion, however, is that legislation has already been remarkably successful in the field of physical protection. Legislative reforms in line with the general movement for the emancipation of women and equality of status for the sexes have often extended the rights of women in the field of labour.



CHAPTER 3

BRIEF RESUME OF CERTAIN DEVELOPMENTS IN
REGULATIONS AFFECTING WOMEN WORKERS IN
CANADA.

Dominion Legislation. - The early manufacturing industry of Canada was conducted in small mills located wherever raw materials were available or where the needs of the neighbouring community justified it. But with the development of the country, more and better manufacturing establishments were built. This evolutionary process brought into prominence the conditions surrounding factory labour. It was these conditions under which women and children were employed in the cotton mills which first induced factory legislation in England. The same was true in Canada - the cotton factories afforded plentiful employment to very young children, as well as to young girls and women. The need for prohibit factory work for very young children and to limit the hours of labour became apparent.

A commission of inquiry into working conditions in the mills and factories of the Dominion was appointed in 1881. Certain bills were introduced and later withdrawn. The question of jurisdiction as between the Dominion and the provinces came under discussion. Factory acts were passed in Ontario in 1884 and in Quebec in 1889.

In December 1886, the Dominion appointed a Royal Commission to inquire into and report on the relations between labour and capital. In 1889 it was reported that young children were extensively employed in factories for long hours and that the laws regulating the employment of women and children in factories and workshops in Ontario and Quebec

were largely inoperative, and likely to remain so as long as any doubt existed as to their constitutionality.

Following this report the Dominion Parliament passed an act providing for a Bureau of Labour to compile statistics and publish information. It was agreed that regulation of working conditions be within the legislative powers of the provinces. The Dominion Department of Labour was established in 1900 under the authority of the Conciliation Act. It now publishes a monthly periodical known as "The Labour Gazette".

From 1900-1909 the Department was administered by the Postmaster-General, who was also Minister of Labour. It was set up as a separate Department under the Labour Department Act of 1909. In 1907 the work of the Department was greatly increased by the passage of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act. At present it is also charged with administering the Employment Offices Co-ordination Act 1919 which provided for the linking up of provincial employment offices. " Under the B.N.A. Act, the Dominion Parliament was given power to enact laws regarding the regulation of trade and commerce, census and statistics, navigation and shipping, naturalization and aliens and, generally, for the peace, order, and good government of Canada in relation to all matters not coming within the classes of subjects assigned exclusively to the legislatures of the provinces. In addition, the Dominion had jurisdiction over criminal law. To the provinces was given authority to legislate on matters affecting property and civil rights, municipal institutions, local works and undertakings other than such as are of inter-provincial nature, and, generally, all matters of a merely local and private nature. Accordingly, laws governing factories, mines, shops, and employment conditions generally



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are of provincial origin".

The validity of certain labour legislation passed by the Dominion has been challenged. As a result, the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of 1907, the Employment and Social Insurance Act of 1935, and the Minimum Wage Act of 1935 were declared ultra vires.

The lack of uniformity in provincial labour legislation and the difficult question of jurisdiction have to some extent been overcome by the cooperation between the Dominion Parliament and the provinces for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes by provincial legislation, making such disputes subject to the provisions of the amended Dominion Statute dealing with such matters. The Technical Education Act and Old Age Pensions Act as well as the Employment Offices Co-ordination Act, are made to apply to the provinces, in some cases, by means of enabling legislation. But there is considerable variation throughout Canada with regard to labour legislation even as it applies to women alone.

The International Labour Organization of the League of Nations was set up in 1919 in accordance with Part XIII of the Treaties of Peace to promote the improvement of world industrial conditions by legislative action and international agreement. The Dominion Department of Labour is entrusted with the duties arising out of the relations of Canada with the International Labour Organization which comprises:

1. The International Labour Conference
2. The International Labour Office in Geneva
(62 countries are members)

As regards Canadian ratifications, " It was decided that the Federal government's obligation would be fully carried out if the different conventions and recommendations were brought to the attention of the competent

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authority, Dominion or provincial in each case"

Provincial Legislation

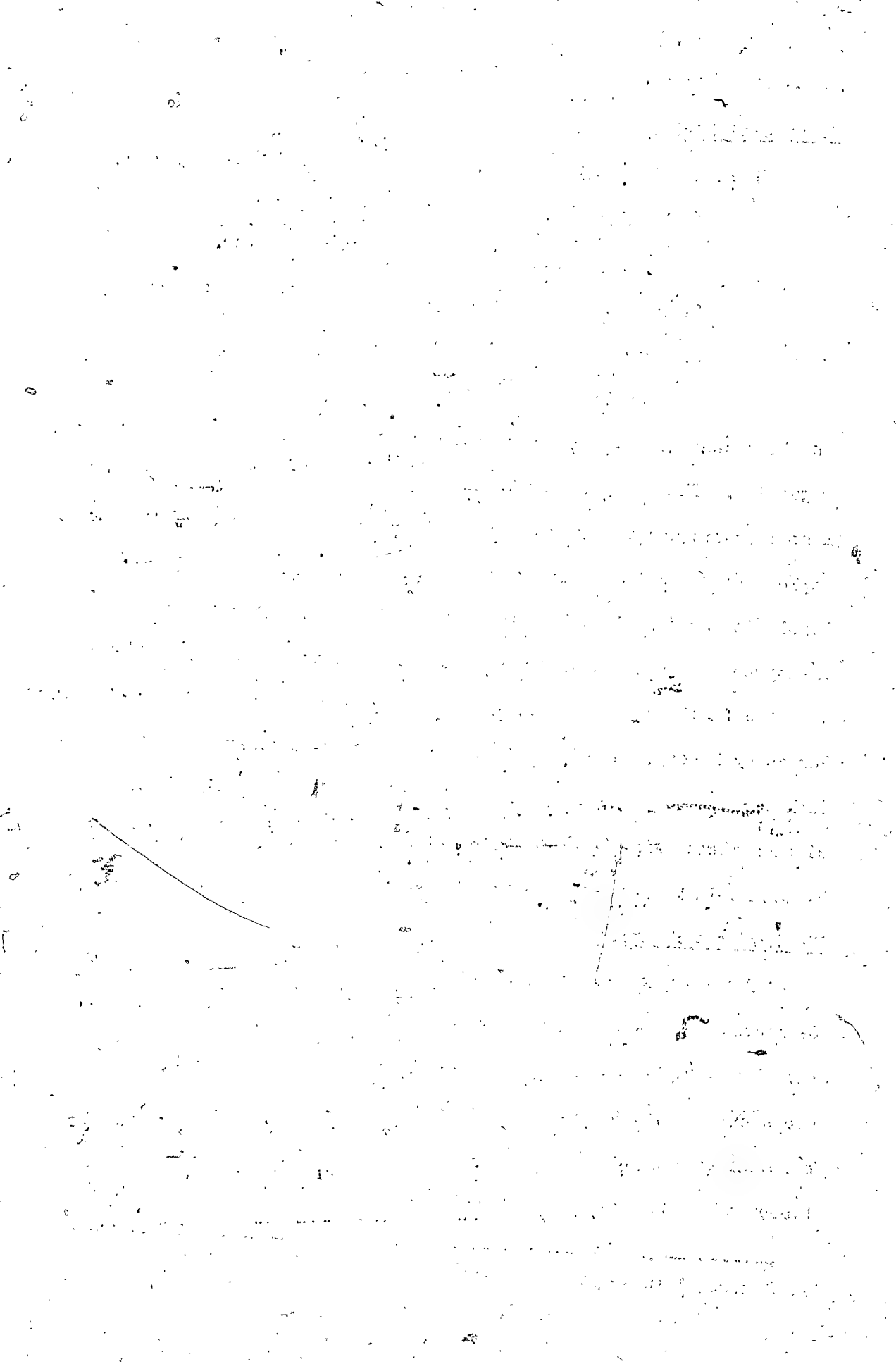
There are three classes of provincial labour legislation:

1. Permissive laws enabling municipalities to pass by-laws providing for the closing of shops within their jurisdiction at a specified hour.
2. Mandatory laws regulating the conditions of employment.
3. Laws conferring on a provincial board power to establish minimum rates of wages, maximum hours of labour and certain other conditions.

In the second of these classes the employment of juveniles is specifically regulated. The first law in Canada establishing a minimum age for employment in shops was an Ontario enactment of 1897 which prohibited such employment for children under 10 years of age. The "Manitoba Shops' Regulation Act" of 1888 was amended in 1916 so that it prohibited the employment of children under 14 in or about shops during school hours except with the permission of the school authorities and of the provincial Bureau of Labour, the officials of which were to satisfy themselves that such employment would not be harmful, and was necessary under the circumstances. The Ontario Apprenticeship Act was passed in 1928 and British Columbia now has a similar act.

The Manitoba Factories Act.

The present Factory Act of Manitoba limits to 9 hours a day and 54 hours a week the working time for girls under 18 and boys under 17. The clause empowering the provincial Bureau of Labour to permit longer hours on not more than 36 days does not apply to boys and girls under 17. The Minimum Wage Board, however, has issued orders governing the hours of labour of female employees in certain classes of factories in the cities



of Manitoba. In accordance with these regulations, girls and women cannot be employed in the factories covered by the orders for longer than 9 hours a day, or 48 to 50 hours a week, except with the permission of the Bureau of Labour. No overtime is permitted for girls under 17 and no girl under 17 may be employed in rag factories, brickyards, or in casual seasonal employment.

In Manitoba bakeries appear to be within the scope of the Factory Act, but there is also a Bake Shop Act which prohibits employment of children under 14 except with the permission of the inspector. There is a law (permissive only) which authorizes the factory inspector to take with him through any factory a qualified medical practitioner.

No further changes have been made since 1916 in the Shops' Regulations Act of Manitoba regarding the ages or hours of young persons, but orders have been issued by the Minimum Wage Board fixing minimum rates of wages and maximum hours of labour for female employees in retail stores in the cities of the province. Hours of work of girls and women in department stores and five and ten cent stores in these cities are limited to 9 per day and 48 per week.

The Minimum Wage Act 1918

The first minimum wage law in Canada apart from the Minimum Wage Clause in the Alberta Factories Act, was the Minimum Wage Act of Manitoba in 1918. It was enacted to standardize minimum wages for female employees in certain industries. The Minimum Wage Board was created and was to be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, on the recommendation of the Minister. It was to consist of five persons, one male and one female to represent employers, one male and one female to represent employees, and a disinterested person as chairman. This Board has very wide powers



relative to:

1. Standards of Minimum Wages
2. Standards of Hours
3. Standards of Working conditions.

The law requires that "every employer shall keep a register of the names and addresses, and the actual earnings of all his employees", and it also gives representatives of the Board power to inspect and examine such register. The Board has power to make investigations, summon witnesses, and examine them under oath. No discrimination is to be shown any employee who may testify in any investigation.

Separate bulletins governing different trades have been issued by the Board covering:

1. Confectionery stores, creameries, drug and grocery stores, and similar places of employment.
2. Department stores and mail order houses
3. Laundries and cleaning and dyeing establishments
4. Places of amusement
5. Basket, leather goods, tent, paint, rag, broom and seed-packing factories
6. Bag factories
7. Bedding factories
8. Dressmaking establishments
9. Five, ten and fifteen cent stores
10. Furriers' establishments
11. Garment factories
12. Glove factories
13. Hotels
14. Knitting factories
15. Ladies' hat factories
16. Ladies' wear factories
17. Millinery establishments
18. Printing, lithographing, book-binding and other manufacturing operations of wholesale stationers.
19. Restaurants
20. Office help, and others.

In Manitoba, under the Minimum Wage Act, except for exemptions or regulations of this Act, and except for employment on a farm or market

I. The Minimum Wage Act

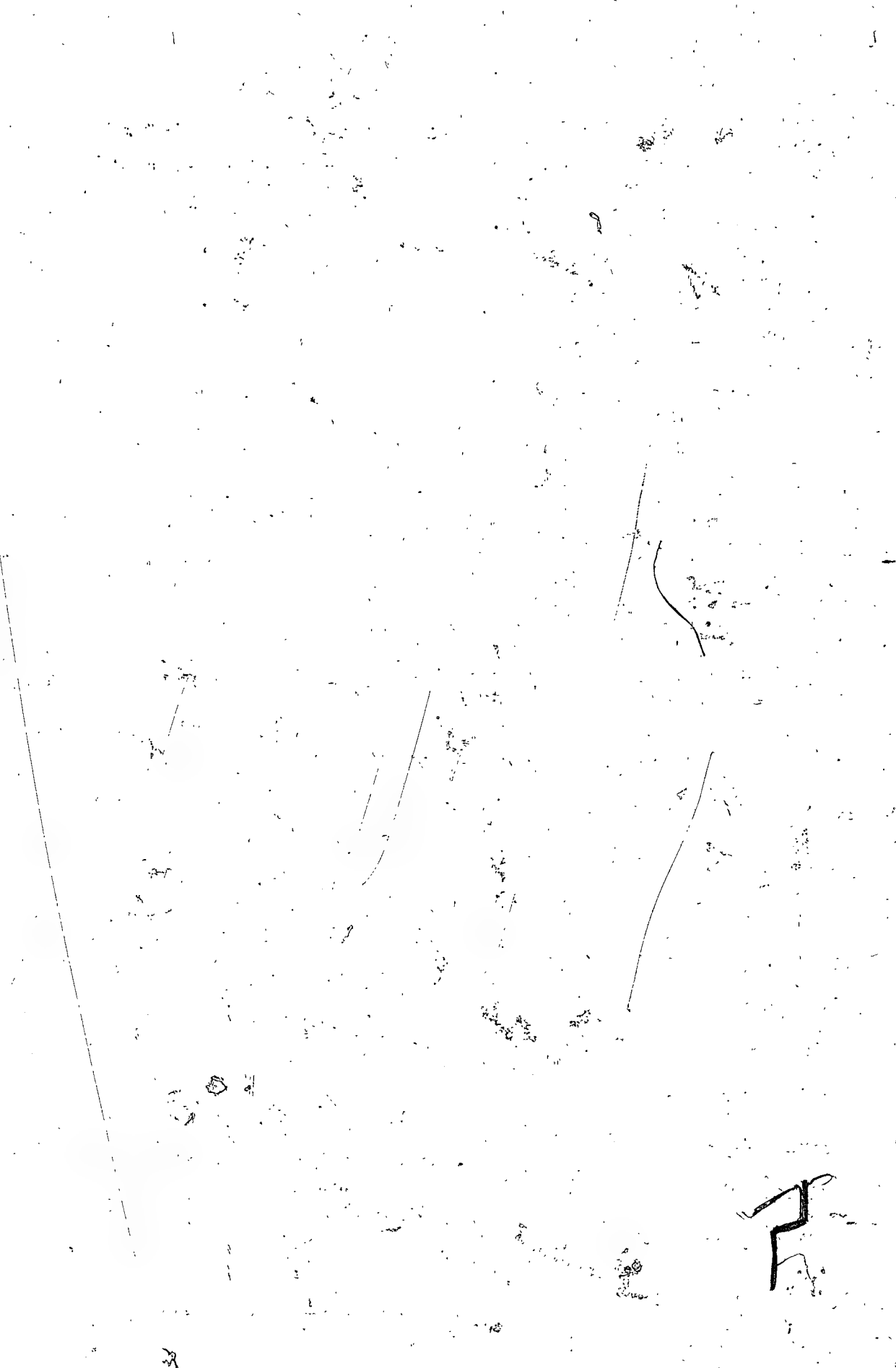


garden or in domestic service, no person over 18 years of age may be employed for less than \$12.00 per week of 48 hours or 25¢ per hour in any city and certain named municipalities, or at any summer resort during the months of June to September inclusive, and in the rest of the province for less than \$10.00 per week of 48 hours or 21¢ per hour. Boys under 18

working in factories, garages, filling stations and retail stores in Greater Winnipeg and Brandon must be paid at least \$8.00 per week the first six months, \$9.00 the second six months, and \$10.00 thereafter (except messenger boys in drug stores for whom the minimum is \$8.00 per week, and boys working part time at night who must be paid at least 15¢ per hour). The \$8.00, \$9.00 and \$10.00 rates apply also to laundries and dyeing and cleaning establishments in Winnipeg and St. Boniface, also to boys employed in hotels, restaurants in certain localities, and in any summer resort, except bell-boys (any age) who are to be paid \$8.00 per week.

An order of the Minimum Wage Board effective March 1, 1935, makes special provision as to wages in classes of work ordinarily performed by boys, for men and boys, also for piece workers, part-time workers, and apprentices.

The evolution of minimum wage legislation in Manitoba forms an interesting parallel to the progress of factory legislation in England, proceeding as it does from the regulations dealing with "female workers" only and later extending those provisions to cover male workers. In England, however, the ingenious method was adopted of classifying women with "children and growing persons". This solution dominated later legislation, affected the entire position of women's employment, and in the end led to bitter controversies over "restrictive legislation".



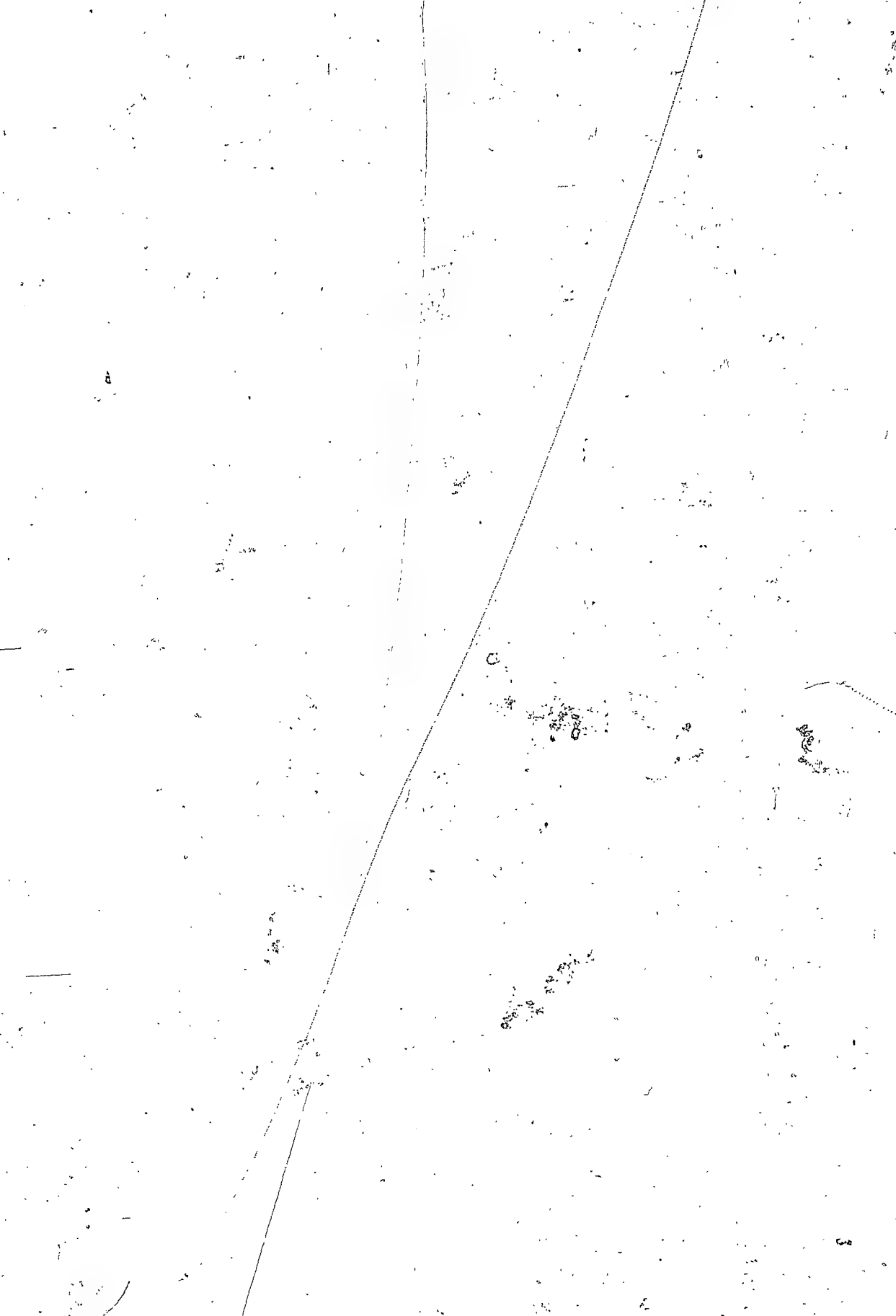
"Manitoba also by the Fair Wage Act of 1915, (considerably amended March 15, 1938, gives wider recognition to the fair wage principle than any other government in Canada. It makes certain provisions for minimum wages and maximum hours".

The Manitoba Bureau of Labour was established in 1915 as a branch of the Department of Public Works. The Bureau was set up as a separate Department in 1931, but the Act was not proclaimed until 1934. It is charged with the administration of the various laws mentioned, as well as with others concerning labour in the province.

ORGANIZED LABOUR AND THE WOMAN WORKER

Miss Abbot, Government Delegate for the United States to the International Labour Conference at Geneva in 1937 says: "Unquestionably, the weakness of women in industrial relations has been a menace to the standards of working men. If women cannot work as equals, and acceptorators, they will of necessity be underbidders, and as workers, they will be less responsible and dependable if society places the stamp of inferiority upon them".

At one time organized labour sought to exclude women workers but it now admits that this is a mistaken means of preventing the employment of women as a cheap form of labour. Women's part in the enforcement of labour laws has been limited to the factory acts and minimum wage laws. Appointment of women inspectors appears to have been due to union influence. In 1889 the Trades and Labour Congress resolved "That — — — — — the interest of the female workers requires that female inspectors of factories and workshops should be appointed by the government". These were appointed



in 1895. In addition, they requested "That employers of labour be urged to pay the woman the same wages as the man for the same class of work properly done".

Social Legislation in Manitoba in Recent Years

An amendment to the Manitoba Election Act on January 28, 1916, gave women (married or unmarried) equal rights of suffrage with men.

"The Dower Law, the result of agitation on the part of women of the province, was passed in 1917. By its provisions a wife has a life interest in the homestead (city or country), and is also assured of a share of her husband's estate. A husband also has reciprocal rights in the homestead owned by the wife".^I

With the exception of Quebec, all the provinces grant to married women by legislation the right to wages and earnings acquired through employment. For a long time governments in Canada, as in Great Britain, adopted a laissez-faire policy as regards the affairs of every day life. A great part of the immense structure of maternity benefits, health, social welfare, and compensations has been built up during the rise of feminism and since women became enfranchised.

In Manitoba, the act to provide allowances for mothers was passed in March, 1916. The Public Schools Attendance Act, the Manitoba Temperance Act, the Workmen's Compensation Act, and the Fair Wage Act were passed in 1916. A public Health Commission was appointed by the Manitoba government in 1917.

"The Minimum Wage Board was urged by groups of women who had made a careful study of the wage conditions among young women, particularly in Winnipeg. This is the first Commission of its kind to be established in Canada, and was given control not only of wages but of conditions and hours of labour, and has wider powers than have yet been given to any other minimum wage board in the Dominion"

It is at least of interest to note that "The Shops' Regulation Act", passed in 1888, had remained in force for 28 years, but not until after women had the right to vote was it amended to regulate the age and hours of children and young persons in shops.

In 1893, the Public Health Act was repealed and a new one enacted placing all public health administration under the direction of a board called the Provincial Board of Health. In 1916, the Provincial Board was reconstituted and provision made for a branch of public health nursing. A very valuable account of public health nursing in Manitoba from 1916-1936 has been issued by the Department.

Summing up the situation in Manitoba as regards labor legislation affecting women and children, this province compares very favourably with the rest of the Dominion. Obviously however, the existence of large numbers of unemployed persons makes enforcement of such laws very difficult, even when backed by enlightened public opinion. Curiously enough, enforcement of labor legislation in England appears to have been greatly facilitated by the women inspectors.



CHAPTER 4

OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS OF WOMEN WORKERS

Women constitute a comparatively small proportion of those employed as wage-earners. It is inevitable, therefore, in any general presentation of trends in the employment of women, that these would be influenced primarily, by the trends in the employment of men. However, present economic developments in the industrial life of this country are bringing about changes in the status of women workers. Hence it is necessary to know how the trend of the employment of women has differed from that of men and whether any very significant changes are taking place. There are certain periods of economic disturbance when the courses of employment for men and for women have taken widely divergent paths. The significance and extent of these similarities and differences are important. There are long term trends, seasonal trends and important differences occasioned by temporary dislocations due to wars, depressions, strikes and lock-outs.

OCCUPATION TRENDS AMONG WOMEN WORKERS

In 1891, 11.07 per cent of the total female population of Canada 10 years of age and over was gainfully occupied. A gradual increase in this percentage is noted in the decades that followed. The figure rose to 12.01 per cent in 1901, 14.31 per cent in 1911 and 15.27 per cent in 1921 (Table I Appendix A). In these years of rapid and steady growth of population throughout Canada, the employment of women not only kept pace with the increase, but superseded it.

A study of the tables in Appendix A, reveals several interesting facts:



1. In Canada as a whole, gainfully occupied women are found predominantly in the secondary and service industries. Only 3.65 per cent were engaged in agricultural pursuits in 1921 and this had become 3.62 per cent in 1931. The proportion of women employed in agriculture in Manitoba was only slightly higher, being 4.01 per cent in 1921 and 4.15 per cent in 1931. (Tables 5, 6 & 7)

Here, of course, it must be borne in mind that the housewife is not listed as gainfully employed, nor is she listed as working "on own account". The largest field of employment in any industry in Manitoba is provided by agriculture. Consequently a much larger percentage of women are actually engaged in agricultural pursuits than the above figures referring exclusively to "wage-earners", would indicate.

2. In contrast, it will be noted that in Canada, 46.27 per cent of the gainfully occupied women were employed in service industries (including professional and personal service) in 1921, and 52.18 per cent in 1931. Manufacturing accounted for 18.32 per cent in 1921 and 12.71 per cent in 1931. Similar figures for Manitoba reveal substantially the same situation except that the proportion of women in the service classification is slightly higher in each year, while that in manufacturing is considerably lower than the Canadian average. (Tables 6 and 7).

A more detailed analysis of the data in Appendix A, Table 1, shows that in the period between 1891 and 1921 an absolute increase of 294,160 or 250 per cent took place in the total number of gainfully occupied women in Canada. The increase was marked in the case of teachers and saleswomen, and not so pronounced in the case of women engaged in occupations associated with art, music and drama. There was a decrease in the number of dressmakers and seamstresses, while the number of tailresses increased slightly between 1891 and 1901, but decreased sharply between 1901 and 1921. The exact opposite occurred in the case of women gainfully employed in agriculture, where a decrease between 1891 and 1901 is followed by an increase in the final two decades.

The number of servants, numerically the largest group, increased steadily till 1911, but decreased by 9,303 between 1911 and 1921,

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(Table 2). The increase in the servant group up to 1911 is by no means commensurate with the total increase in gainfully occupied, showing that women in large numbers were, in these years, finding other more congenial occupations. This trend is carried forward to an absolute decrease between 1911 and 1921.

A decrease of 4,954, or more than 50 per cent, occurred among women engaged in wholesale and retail trade - proprietors, managers and superintendents - between 1901-1911 (years of heavy population increases). This decrease was not even regained in the decade that witnessed the World War. This fact should be considered in relation to the increase of 21,592 in the number of wholesale and retail saleswomen. In considering this decrease together with the decline in the number of dressmakers, seamstresses and tailoresses, the explanation obviously lies in the increased factory production of the period, in the reduced number of small stores and shops and in the great increase in large scale department store and mail order activity. Mass production and mass buying also tended to do away with the smaller wholesale establishments and jobbers. The process was somewhat retarded in the next decade (war years), but was apparently continued after the war period.

The most significant increase from the point of view of the economic and social status of women workers occurred in the teaching profession. Referring again to Table 2, Appendix A., it will be seen that the number of women teachers almost doubled between 1891 and 1901, and continued to increase during the following twenty years.

In considering the group, general farmers (Table 2), it is to be noted here that those are not necessarily wage-earners, a number are working on "own account", the number decreasing between 1891 and 1901.

From 1901 to 1911 the number practically doubled, influenced no doubt by the large immigration of that period. From 1911 to 1921 the absolute increase of 691 was of little importance when considered in relation to the increase in the total number of gainfully occupied females. It may be well to note too that there was an absolute decrease of males under this classification (war decade). Domestic and personal service is the only general division of occupations in which an increase in the number of women is recorded from 1921 to 1931 after a decline had taken place in the preceding decade. In Manitoba the Domestic and Personal Service group had become 59.92 per cent, and the Personal Service 42.66 per cent of all gainfully occupied females. This change has largely been the result of the upward trend in the number of servants, the controlling occupation of this entire group. The fact to be emphasized here is that when other occupational opportunities are at a low ebb for women, there is a marked numerical upward trend in the servant group.

The general division, domestic and personal service, includes not only private and public housekeeping, charwomen and day workers and laundry workers in and out of laundries, but also those catering directly to the personal needs of the public. Domestic and personal service also includes barbers, hairdressers and manicurists, practical nurses, undertakers, bootblacks, porters, janitors, sextons, and elevator tenders, as well as all employees of steam laundries and cleaning, dyeing and pressing shops, together with their owners and managers. It does not, however, include the medical and nursing groups which are normally classified under professional service.

The decline in domestic and personal service recorded between 1911 and 1921, while not numerically large, is significant when considered in

relation to previous and subsequent increases, and compared with upward trends in other occupations for women during that decade. As has been stated before, the largest class numerically, that of servants, influences the trend of employment for women as a whole.

Inasmuch as the wages of servants advanced appreciably and more or less continuously throughout the war era, household employees came to be regarded as a distinct luxury. There was at the same time an increased adoption of mechanical household equipment. Higher wages and superior working conditions, particularly hours of work, attracted domestic workers to other jobs, principally in factories. This would appear to account for the decrease from 1911 to 1921. But the consistent and large increase in this class of worker from 1921 to 1936 is significant as a trend in women's employment in Canada, Manitoba and Winnipeg. It is evident that many women who held other jobs during the war, and directly after, must have returned to domestic service, while others who did not find it necessary to work during some portion of that period, have sought employment in this field.

In considering any statistics with regard to employed persons, the various phases of business cycle, depression and boom factors, which dominate the trend for workers as a whole, are naturally reflected in conditions as they exist for women. Population density, relative numbers of males and females and the mobility of the worker must also be considered.

Table 10 shows a total increase in all occupations relative to population from 1911 to 1921 in Canada and Manitoba, but a slight relative decrease in Winnipeg for female occupations. Between 1921 and 1931 there is a large increase in occupations throughout, and between

1931 and 1936 a relative decrease.

However, women form a comparatively small proportion of the total number gainfully employed (in Manitoba they constituted approximately 16% and in Winnipeg approximately 26% of the total number employed in 1931). For this reason, a general presentation of employment statistics is dominated chiefly by trends in the employment of males, with employment of females being a relatively minor factor.

Despite this fact, however, present developments in the economic and industrial life of the country are bringing about significant changes in the economic status of women. And if government policies are to be guided wisely for all gainfully employed persons it is essential that we know precisely how the developments in women's employment differ from developments in the field of male employment. The indications are that the two react differently to various economic influences. For example, there were some changes in the trend of female employment in certain occupations between 1911-21 and 1921-31 which may seem unique. Since 1911, relative and sometimes absolute declines have occurred among women engaged in agricultural pursuits. Up to 1921 there is quite a high and consistent relative upward trend for women engaged in clerical, professional and trade occupations. On the other hand, from 1921-1931 a relative increase occurs in the case of men, in clerical, professional and trade, while a relative decline took place for women in the same occupations. This, taken in conjunction with the greater dependence of women on domestic and personal service, shows in Canada a weakening of the economic status of women since the war. This trend became evident even in a period of great industrial activity and general prosperity.

The contrary trends for men and women in clerical, professional

service and trade occupations from 1921 to 1931 for Canada, Manitoba and Winnipeg, are seen in Tables 6, 7 and 8 in Appendix A. The situation was more acute in Manitoba than in Canada as a whole. The same fact holds for manufacturing occupations. It would then appear that men were at this time finding it easier to secure employment in these occupations than women. It may be that many women felt less need for employment during this period, and consequently dropped out of the labour markets. However, this does not seem to be borne out by the facts for the greater number of women in the lower paid occupations would seem to indicate increased economic pressure during this period.

For twenty-five years the occupations of dressmaker, milliner and home launderer have been losing ground, though the decline has been somewhat retarded since 1920 - "women are not leaving those occupations so much as the occupations are leaving them". From a sociological standpoint the decline is significant. Most of the dressmakers and laundresses, and a few of the milliners, carried on their work at home. To a large extent these have been part-time pursuits which could be combined with the care of children and household duties. We see here that the Industrial Revolution is still going on - women still follow their time-honored occupations into the factory. Even in less industrialized areas, such as Manitoba, the products of large-scale industry are made known by means of national advertising, and increased transportation facilities tend to destroy distance. Thus, for example, the large department stores are brought to the doorstep of the remotest farmstead by means of the mail order houses.

Summarizing for Manitoba, we find in Table 9 that 42.66 per cent of all gainfully occupied women in the province in 1936, were employed in personal service, while 17 per cent were in professional service.

The fact that the second largest group of gainfully occupied women is found in a field which requires a considerable period of training and natural ability raises the interesting question of educational opportunity and status of women. This professional group consists largely of teachers and graduate nurses.

The third largest group in which gainfully occupied women are found is classified as "clerical", which includes stenographers and typists. The proportion of women in this group decreased, in Manitoba, from 20.55 per cent in 1931 to 17.78 per cent in 1936. This decrease had already begun in Manitoba and Winnipeg in the 1921-31 decade.

The relative number of women engaged in personal service is higher in Manitoba than in Canada as a whole. On the other hand, there are comparatively fewer women engaged in both professional and clerical service. But even here it would appear that, both by their own predilections and by occupational fitness, there is a movement of women into fields of gainful occupations other than housework. This will soon be natural when one considers that between 55 and 60 per cent of all Canadian women over 15 years of age find their life work in marriage. They probably represent on the whole those most naturally drawn to home making. This fact also makes it apparent that nowadays a considerable body of women find their life-work in spheres other than marriage.

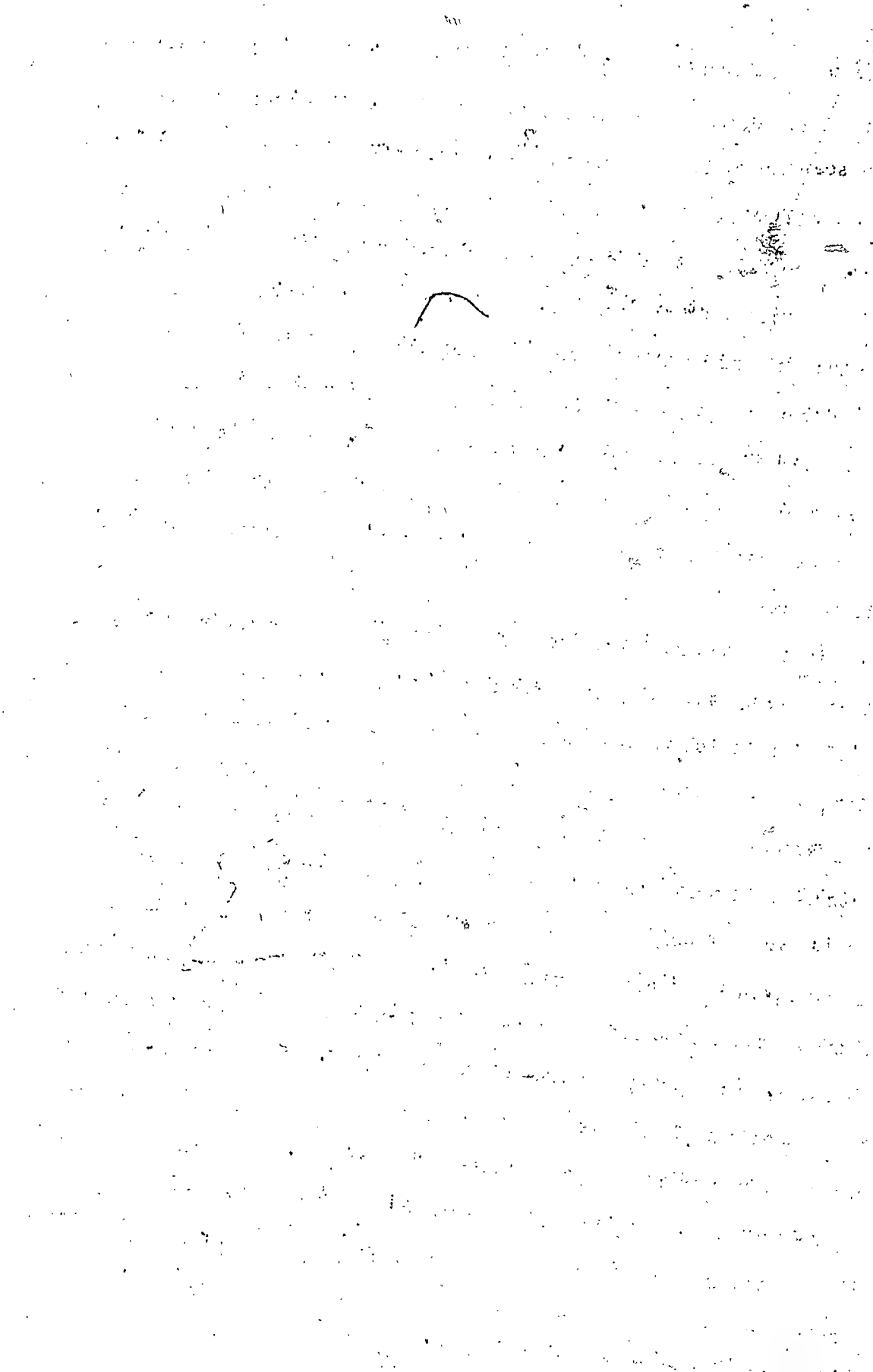
It has been said that no data are so important or so neglected as recent data which form the immediate background for the conditioning of current events. Bearing this in mind we turn to certain interesting facts revealed in Tables 3 and 4. Here we consider occupations from the point of view of their relative numerical importance to women. We find that in Manitoba there was for females an increase in 10 and a



decrease in 12 occupations; in Winnipeg an increase in only 8 and a decrease in 14 occupations between 1931 and 1936. Unfortunately for women seeking employment in Winnipeg, there are decreases in the three highest occupational groups and in the next four the increases are not large. The only increases of any importance took place in manufacturing occupations, other clerical, and barbering and hairdressing. Winnipeg also suffers by comparison with Manitoba as a whole, there being a total absolute increase of females in gainful occupation in Manitoba as compared to an absolute decrease in Winnipeg. These comparisons are significant in that they comprise the largest occupational groups and thus represent almost the entire field of employment opportunity available to women.

In 1880 the Bell Telephone Company of Canada was incorporated, but the use of the telephone grew rather slowly in Manitoba until 1900. In 1899 the Legislature passed an enabling Act permitting municipalities to operate local exchanges. In 1906 ownership was undertaken by the provincial government which operated long distance facilities. The investment in telephone property in Canada constitutes a large item and is exceeded only by the investments in steam railways, roads and highways, in the field of transportation and communication. This lends significance to the fact that the system is operated almost exclusively by women. On January 1, 1928, Canada had 1,259,987 telephones. There was a steady growth up to 1930 when the number was 1,402,861; but during the three following years there was a decline. The number of telephones per capita in Canada is second only to the United States. In 1933, there were in Manitoba 61,874 telephones or 8.6 per 100 population.^{I.}

I. Canada Year Book 1934-35 and 1937.



In large urban centres the technological switch-over to the dial system has meant an aggravation of the problem for girls without work. Automatic switchboards have now completely displaced manual switchboards in the principal cities of the prairie provinces. This is without a doubt responsible for the absolute decrease in operators.

In considering economic trends in occupations as they concern women, we speak of the effects of the industrial revolution, of depression and prosperity, of the effect of granting women the franchise, of technological changes; but mostly we ignore the devastating revolution which has occurred in the domestic economy, and we speak of women deserting the home and home life when they are actually out to battle for its survival. For wherever field surveys have been undertaken, the subsidiary income derived from working women is shown as the last line of economic defence in many homes, without which large numbers of families would become additional burdens on the relief rolls.



CHAPTER 5.

RELATION OF EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN TO THAT OF MEN,
GENERAL LEVELS OF MENS' AND WOMENS' WAGES IN
CHIEF OCCUPATION GROUPS

Eighty-two per cent of the Canadian female working force are wage-earners rather than employers or workers on own account. This fact has tremendous significance in relation to any slackening of employment demand and unemployment. Those who do work "on their own" are largely private duty nurses, lodging-house keepers or small business people, such as hairdressers, dressmakers, etc. Over three-quarters of the women who might be classified as employers are in agriculture, the others being small store owners, hairdressers, restaurant keepers, etc.

The 1931 census indicates that the average earnings of women workers in Canada are not high, \$559 per annum for an average working year of 45.70 weeks (Table 23). The highest average earnings for females, \$757 per annum, occur in the age group from 35 to 44 years (Table 15), when the working year averages approximately 47.48 weeks.

Distributing the average wages earned over a year of 52 weeks, the weekly wage of the woman worker in all Canada came to \$10.75 in 1931, ranging from a low of \$7.00 in Prince Edward Island to a high of \$12.23 in Ontario, and \$11.98 in British Columbia. However, Quebec and the Maritime provinces - the latter less industrialized - fall below the average, as does Saskatchewan, where women workers are engaged largely in clerical or service pursuits.^{I.}

The concentration of wage-earners both male and female in the lower income brackets is very noticeable in Table 20, showing that

I. Canada Year Book, 1937, Page 789.

32.48 per cent males and 41.83 per cent females received less than \$500 per annum in 1931. This number increased in 1936 to 33.60 per cent males and 46.05 per cent females receiving less than \$500 per annum. This table also reveals the startling fact that in Manitoba in 1936 there were 14,760 fewer male wage-earners listed than in 1931, whereas there is an absolute increase, though slight, among women amounting to 370.

One responsibility of society is to see that the worker's income shall be sufficient for a decent minimum standard of living fifty-two weeks in the year. When this is not done through the media of work and wages, sociological problems arise, and government, which represents both the worker and industry, has a problem on its hands.

Of primary importance to the working woman is the amount of her remuneration. It usually determines the actual standard of living she can maintain, for the vast majority of employed women have little or no source of income outside of their own earnings. Strangely, the higher the wage group to which a woman belongs the greater the interest that seems to be taken in her sources of income other than earnings. This is apparently not true in the case of the male wage-earner; least of all is it advanced as a reason for lowering his wages.

Considerable evidence as to the actual amounts received by women can be collected. Wage figures should, however, be related to the general price level for the period or place being studied. In order to make clear the relative value of a given wage for women certain factors need consideration. These are:

1. The relation of the level of this wage to that of men.
2. The financial obligations that women must meet out of their wages.
3. The question of changing wage levels.
4. Are the earnings of women sufficient for maintaining a decent or adequate standard of living?
5. The social significance of their failure or success in maintaining an adequate standard of living.

Referring to Table 11 in Appendix B, it will be noted that female wage-earners are concentrated in the age groups 18-34, the total for Manitoba in 1931 in this group being 74.52 per cent, as compared with 70.48 per cent for Canada as a whole. The percentage of wage-earners in the older groups drops slightly more sharply in Manitoba than in Canada as a whole. This is significant because, as previously mentioned, the highest average earnings for women occur in the 35 - 44 age group. Male wage-earners in the 18 - 34 age group constitute 46.17 per cent in Canada, 47.37 per cent in Manitoba. Comparing these figures it is evident that the average earning period for men is much longer than for women.

As examples of contrary trends for working men and women, we find in Table 12 greater absolute increases for women wage-earners, both in Canada as a whole and in Manitoba, between the census years 1911 and 1921, whereas for male wage-earners there are greater absolute increases in both Canada and Manitoba between the years 1921 and 1931. Here is a clear indication of the divergent paths of male and female employment in the war and post-war decades.

When we compare the average wages per week employed, however, we find for both men and women a marked increase from 1911-1921, a slight increase for women from 1921-1931, and a slight decrease for men in this period. There has then occurred a very slight narrowing of the average

differential between men's and women's wages. Naturally the course of women's wages fluctuates with that of men, rising in times of prosperity and falling in times of depression. In Table 12, the actual average money wage of men and women is shown to have risen but the cost of living rose also, being at its peak in 1920. (See Table 13 on changes of cost of living in Canada, 1913-1937). The highest average of weeks worked occurs in 1921 with a consequent higher average yearly wage in this period for both men and women.

In the United States there is a fact finding agency called the Women's Bureau, under the jurisdiction of the Department of Labor, whose duty it is to study the problems and conditions of women workers, to decide by scientific research and investigation the best standards for their employment and to make public its findings and conclusions. This agency has repeatedly shown that hundreds of thousands of working women in the United States are paid far below what it costs to live decently and happily. It is a distinct gain for the women of America to have the right to formulate themselves, standards and policies which will promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency and advance their opportunities for profitable employment.

In Canada, a large amount of statistical data has been gathered, for example, volumes of facts were brought forth in the Steven's investigation. At the present time the International Labor Organization, in co-operation with international women's organizations, is making a study of the economic status of women. Upon the initiative of the National Council of the Y.W.C.A. of Canada, a Liaison Committee was organized representing thirteen organizations of women wage-earners.

It is time that that portion of our population, which is responsible for the spending of the major part of the wage-earners' income should take some cognizance of its economic status. Information on men's and women's wages is much in demand. One aspect of this that is of special interest is the relation of women's wages to those of men. Though wage information tends to grow old almost more rapidly than it can be collected and analyzed, it seems of benefit to bring together some of the available indications as to men's and women's wages, including certain hitherto unpublished data from the Census Bureau of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

The data in the present report show a remarkable uniformity in the differentials in the wages of the two sexes, in spite of changes in general wage level, in public sentiment, in business conditions, and in source of labor supply. The causes of this differential, its economic results and justification or otherwise must be considered.

Referring again to Table 12 the average earnings per week employed for females are slightly over one half of those for men in 1911, 1921, and 1931 for Canada as a whole. They are slightly higher in Manitoba or approximately 57 per cent in 1911 and 58 per cent in 1921. This declined to 53 per cent in 1931, indicating a widening of the differential in Manitoba concurrently with the opposite trend in Canada as a whole.

Table 14 shows the concentration of female wage-earners in the younger age groups in the city of Winnipeg. In 1911 about 60 per cent were 24 years of age and under, while in 1921 over 53 per cent were in this group, whereas only about 3 per cent of women wage-earners were over 49 years of age as compared with over 13 per cent of the males.

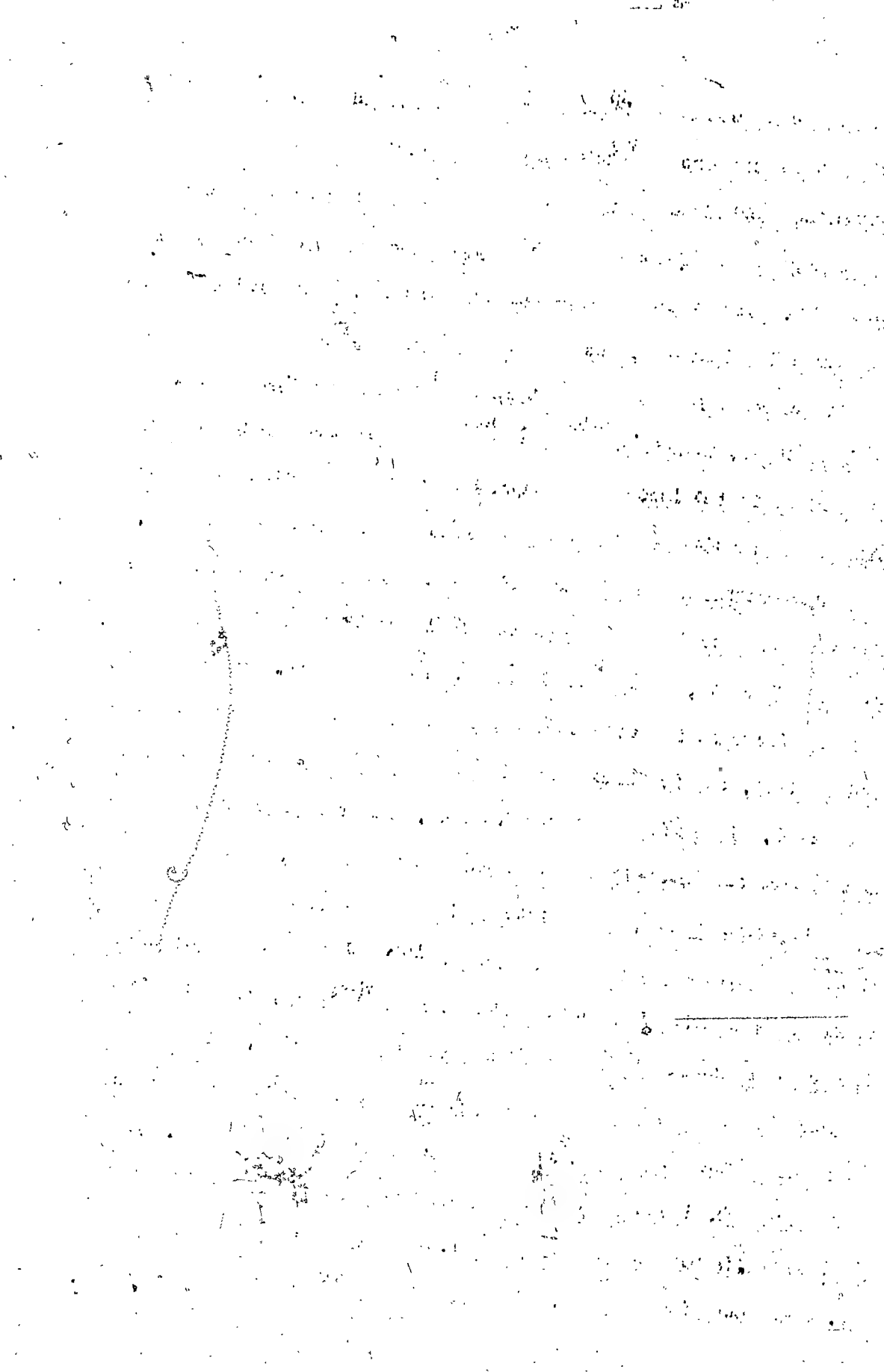
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In 1931 there were over 55 per cent of the female wage-earners 24 years and under as compared to less than 20 per cent of the males. It is tentatively suggested here that a working force thus concentrated in the younger age groups forms a body of workers peculiarly subject to exploitation. Also these figures reflect discrimination against older women entering industry, especially married women.

In considering the age groupings and number of female wage-earners in 1921, it is noticeable that here there is less concentration than before in the lower age groups, indicating that older women constitute a potential working force utilized when needed by industry.

The greater absolute increases among female wage-earners of all ages from 1911 to 1921, than between 1921 and 1931 for Canada, Manitoba and Winnipeg, are shown in Tables 15, 16 and 17. There was also a marked increase in average weekly wages for both men and women from 1911 to 1921, but for women only in Canada as a whole is this carried on to 1931. In Manitoba and in Winnipeg, the average money-wage for women decreased in 1931, the same being true for men.

In these tables, it is interesting to follow throughout the 20-24 year age groups for males and females. Owing to changes in the statistical compilations during the period, this is, strictly speaking, the only really comparable age group in the tables. It also happens to be a group regarding which some interesting facts have come to light in the population study of the Economic Survey Board. In this group the increase in male wage-earners 20-24 between 1921 and 1931 is 43.27 per cent in Canada, 51.67 per cent in Manitoba, and 59.23 per cent in Winnipeg. The increase in female wage-earners,



between 1921 and 1931 is 48.50 per cent in Canada, 66.25 per cent in Manitoba and 69.41 per cent in Winnipeg. In conjunction with this comparison in numbers of male and female wage-earners in this group, we find their average weekly wages were as follows: males, Canada 1921 - \$18.35, Manitoba \$18.20, Winnipeg \$22.75. Canada 1931 - males \$15.20, Manitoba \$13.90, Winnipeg \$18.27. For females the figures were: Canada, 1921 \$12.78, Manitoba \$15.13, Winnipeg \$16.06; for 1931 Canada \$11.35, Manitoba \$11.09, and Winnipeg \$11.72.

The consistent fact then for both sexes throughout in this age group is an increase in the numbers employed and a decrease in their average weekly money-wage. Taking these wages in relation to the cost of living (Table 13), we find the real wages of men and women in this age group. There is only a slight variation in the real wages of this particular age group in these periods, and the differential in men's and women's wages is retained. It must be obvious to every one that the low wages received by women produce a low standard of living; for if any age group of women could ever be assumed to be self-supporting it would be this one; and this does not take into consideration the now very numerous cases in which wage-earning women contribute to the family and even support dependents. But the effects of this situation are far more significant than that. We found here that the per cent increase of female wage-earners was greater than the per cent increase of the males. Should this not lead us to consider seriously whether there is a definite tendency to depress wage standards in general for both sexes, extending and perpetuating the ills of poverty and dependency and placing a premium on the displacement of men and the hiring of women at reduced rates, then in turn displacing the women when the

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low wage standard has become established?

In Tables 18 (a) (b) (c) selected occupations employing large numbers of women are compared in certain significant instances with the same occupations employing men and the wage differential noted. The tables also indicate the fluctuations in wages from census year to census year among women wage-earners only.

In Table 18 (a) the differentials in womens' and mens' earnings in the same occupations for 1921 and 1931 are considered. We find that the levels of womens' wages are consistently below those of men, showing that the old tradition of the little money worth of womens' work dies hard.

An interesting tendency in womens' wage scales is that generally speaking they are higher for women employed in those industries which are important male employers. An example given here is telegraphers. The majority of telegraphers are men, but the highest average weekly wage paid to women is in this classification. And yet women received only about 60% of the wages paid to men in this occupation in 1921 and about 70 per cent in 1931. In those years their efficiency was apparently established as the differential narrowed slightly.

Now a comparison can be made between the remuneration paid in this essentially male occupation with that of telephone operators, essentially a woman's occupation. In 1921 the weekly averages for women telegraph operators were, \$18.46 in Canada, \$20.68 in Manitoba, and \$20.91 in Winnipeg, as compared to women telephone operators where wages averaged \$13.47 in Canada, \$15.49 in Manitoba, and \$16.77 in Winnipeg.

In 1931 the weekly averages for women telegraphers were \$23.23,

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\$26.11, and \$26.43 in Canada, Manitoba and Winnipeg respectively, as compared to the wages of women telephone operators which averaged \$13.97 in Canada, \$14.65 in Manitoba and \$17.40 in Winnipeg. The range is from 56 per cent to 65 per cent. It is significant that the differential here between women in a man-employing and women in woman-employing industry is much the same as that between men and women working at the same occupation.

That this difference cannot be attributed to lack of skill can be shown by considering the occupation labourers and unskilled workers. Here we find in 1931 that in Canada and Manitoba, women received about 60 per cent of men's wages and in Winnipeg slightly more than 50%. Nor can mere physical strength be the influencing factor. For, turning to waiters and waitresses, and surely the serving of food should be a woman's occupation, we find that the average weekly wage in Canada in 1921 for females was \$9.18, and for males \$15.08, or only 60 per cent. In 1931 in the same category the wages were \$8.56 and \$16.42 for female and male wage-earners respectively, or only slightly more than 50 per cent. We find here an actual widening of the differential in a traditionally woman's occupation.

We now propose to compare the wages of women in selected occupations for 1931 and 1936 in Manitoba and Winnipeg. The preceding tables indicate that in Winnipeg women in all the occupations listed have a lower average money wage in 1936 than in 1931 with the trifling exceptions of 8¢ per week more for furriers, 5¢ per week more for laborers and unskilled workers, and 56¢ per week more for packers and wrappers. The reductions are, however, more material. For example, we note the following reductions:

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\$4 per week for women teachers;
\$3 per week for stenographers and typists;
\$2 per week for bookkeepers and cashiers;
\$2 per week for women cooks.

and this in spite of the fact that in 1921 women cooks received less than half the wages paid to men, and in 1931 only a little more than half. The wages of hairdressers and manicurists dropped about \$3.50 a week and so on throughout. When we consider that the cost of living has been rising since 1933, and that Winnipeg is a high rent area, the adverse effects of wage reductions on the standards of living of these women are apparent. Comparing the situation in Manitoba in these selected occupations for females 1921 and 1931 the same situation holds. In some cases greater reductions are noted; for example, in the case of women teachers, a reduction of almost \$5.00 per week took place. The wages of cooks and domestics, matrons and housekeepers are further depressed.

THE DOMESTIC SERVANT

Just as in England it was found that parents were often the worst offenders in the treatment of their own children under the domestic system of industry, when the family was a working unit, so today, women are themselves the worst offenders against their own sex in the treatment of the domestic servant. And so with the advent of other occupational opportunities for women there has evolved the "servant problem". The occupation of domestic servant is one of low prestige and remuneration, and unfair conditions of work prevail for these reasons. The employment situation as it exists for women is reflected in the numbers available for domestic service.

The following table for Manitoba and Winnipeg shows this situation:

<u>MANITOBA</u>			<u>WINNIPEG</u>		
<u>Domestic Servants</u>		<u>Avg. Weekly Wage</u>	<u>Domestic Servants</u>		<u>Avg. Weekly Wage</u>
1921	5,388	\$ 5.24	2,148		\$ 7.83
1931	10,926	4.52	5,003		5.48
1936	11,381	3.27	4,442		4.09

It is significant that in both Manitoba and Winnipeg the number of domestic servants practically doubled in the post-war decade and the wage was drastically cut. It is axiomatic that abundance is bound to create cheapness, and this abundance shows a shrinkage in other occupational opportunities open to women. The further depression of wage rates to 1936 shows the exploitation of women workers in this class. In dealing later with the increase of unemployment relief for women these facts are relevant.

The large increase in the numbers employed in the personal service occupations taken in conjunction with reduced earnings, definitely points to a worsening of the economic status of women in Manitoba and Winnipeg.

Another very significant factor in 1936 is seen in the relatively low number of weeks worked in the year, notably among confectionery and biscuit makers, furriers, hairdressers, nurses, packers and wrappers, and waitresses - these vary from 34 to 36 weeks in the year. In these tables the average weekly wage has also been calculated to cover 52 weeks in the year.

EARNINGS OF WAGE-EARNERS BY INCOME GROUPS.

Wage-earners classified on the basis of annual earnings are shown in Tables 19 and 20. It will be noted that the greatest concentration of workers both male and female takes place in the earning groups \$50-\$449, \$450-949, and \$950-\$1449. Totalling these the per cents are, Canada 1931, males, 74.23%, females 89.27%; Manitoba, males 71.31%,

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females 87.51%; and in Manitoba (1936), males 72.51%, and females 84.08%.

The chief significance of these figures lies in the fact that they show that the very large proportion of wage-earners is in the lower wage levels. They indicate, too, that the greatest proportion of women are to be found in the lowest income group, \$50-\$449. As an example of how carefully figures must be analyzed to give a true picture let us take the total percentage of females in these wage groupings for 1931 and 1936. They were as noted 87.51% for 1931, and 84.08 per cent in 1936. Have these women been shifted up or down in the wage-earner groups? We find 2.29% of the women workers with no earnings in 1931, increasing to 3.46 per cent in 1936. Also the women earning \$1-49 per annum constituted 2.79 per cent in 1931 and 10.17 per cent in 1936. So that the downward trend is only too evident. Another significant fact for women in a small province like Manitoba is that whereas in 1931, 26 women managed to get into the \$2950 - \$4949 wage group, only 12 are listed in that wage group in 1936.

Let us now consider the \$50-\$449 group in greater detail. For males it ranges from almost 28% for Canada as a whole in 1931 to approximately one third in Manitoba in 1931 and 1936. In the case of females, the percentage ranges from 42 to 46 per cent. When one considers that this means at the highest point less than \$10 per week, and a median of conceivably less than \$5 per week, and this to persons who in many cases must have some dependents or belong to families in need of contributions toward their maintenance, the seriousness of the situation becomes evident, and its sociological significance apparent.

Table 20 gives a clear picture of the situation for female wage-

The following information was obtained from the records of the [redacted] Department, dated [redacted].

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earners in Manitoba 1931-1936 - briefly summed up we find:

1. An increase in the no income brackets
2. An increase in the low wage brackets
3. A decrease in the high wage brackets

Although the trend is the same for wage-earners of both sexes, it is intensified in every respect for the female wage-earner and, as shown above, will tend to a further lowering of the wage scale for both sexes with a possible temporary numerical increase in the female employment.

In Tables 21 and 22 the position of the wage-earner in Manitoba and Winnipeg in the years 1931 and 1936 are considered in relation to industry. The highest average wage for men in Manitoba and Winnipeg is in finance and insurance, the same being true for women in the province, but in Winnipeg the highest paid females are found in the field of education. For females by far the largest numerical group in Manitoba is private domestic service; in Winnipeg, however, the largest number is in trade. The second wage bracket for women in both Manitoba and Winnipeg comes in transportation and communication. Third place in Manitoba falls to education, no doubt traceable to the very large number of teachers, 4042 of whom are women, many receiving low pay in rural schools. (See Education Report Part II, Appendix "E".^{I.} Here, averages for whole municipalities are low as \$350 per annum are found and in 34 municipalities the average salaries for teachers, including town schools, is less than \$500. In only 9 rural municipalities is the yearly average over \$700 and in some of these there are quite large urban centres, such as Dauphin, Selkirk, etc.) Trade ranks second in numerical importance for women wage-earners in Manitoba with education third.

The actual earnings for men and women in occupational groupings

1. The first step in the process is to identify the problem or issue that needs to be addressed. This involves gathering information and understanding the context of the problem.

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for Manitoba 1931 and 1936 are shown in Table 23. Here we find that the total average annual income for women wage-earners in Manitoba has dropped from \$559 in 1931 to \$411 in 1936, the average weekly wage falling from \$12.22 in 1931 to \$10.23 in 1936 and the average number of weeks worked dropping from 45.70 in 1931 to 40.18 in 1936 - a rather serious picture to contemplate. The only group showing a slight increase in earnings being the laborers and unskilled workers. There has also been a slight widening of the differential between men's and women's wages, probably indicating that women are being used to depress the wage level. The consistent lowering of the average weeks employed is perhaps the most consistent and depressive feature of this table. The only occupational groups averaging the minimum wage for women being, in order of wage average, respectively - finance, insurance, professional service and clerical.

In order to ascertain whether circumvention of minimum legislation was taking place, it would be necessary among women wage-earners to eliminate domestic workers and those employed in agriculture, both of these groups being outside minimum wage regulation, then work out the averages on that basis. Any intelligent appraisal of available data however, can hardly fail to point to the need for a "field survey" of working conditions for women in Winnipeg. More attention needs to be paid to the differential between the wages of men and women. Not only is exploitation unfair to the woman worker, but man has a right to know how it affects his own wage and opportunity for employment.



CHAPTER 6

RESPONSIBILITY OF EMPLOYED WOMEN
FOR THE SUPPORT OF OTHERS

Although there are gainfully employed women as well as men who are not responsible for the support of others, a large number of women have to provide a livelihood for dependents. These may be children, brothers or sisters, dependent parents or other relatives; even husbands who are ill or out of work. Information on this subject is limited, but such facts as are available indicate that a high percentage of working women are responsible in varying degrees for the support of others. As a matter of fact the burden of support does not usually fall exclusively upon one wage-earner alone, although this is more true among women than men. The more common situation is one in which several wage-earners contribute towards the support of the family. These subsidiary earnings when added together form a considerable percentage of the family income.

In this connection it is interesting to note certain facts disclosed in a bulletin entitled "Urban Earnings and Housing Accommodation in Canada 1931 and 1936". The author points out that "Average annual earnings per family for prairie cities declined approximately \$450 per family from 1931 to 1936", and that "variations in living standards were greater than differences in earnings levels". He goes on to say that "records from the prairie census of 1936 indicate that the purchasing power of earnings per person over necessities was somewhat less in 1936

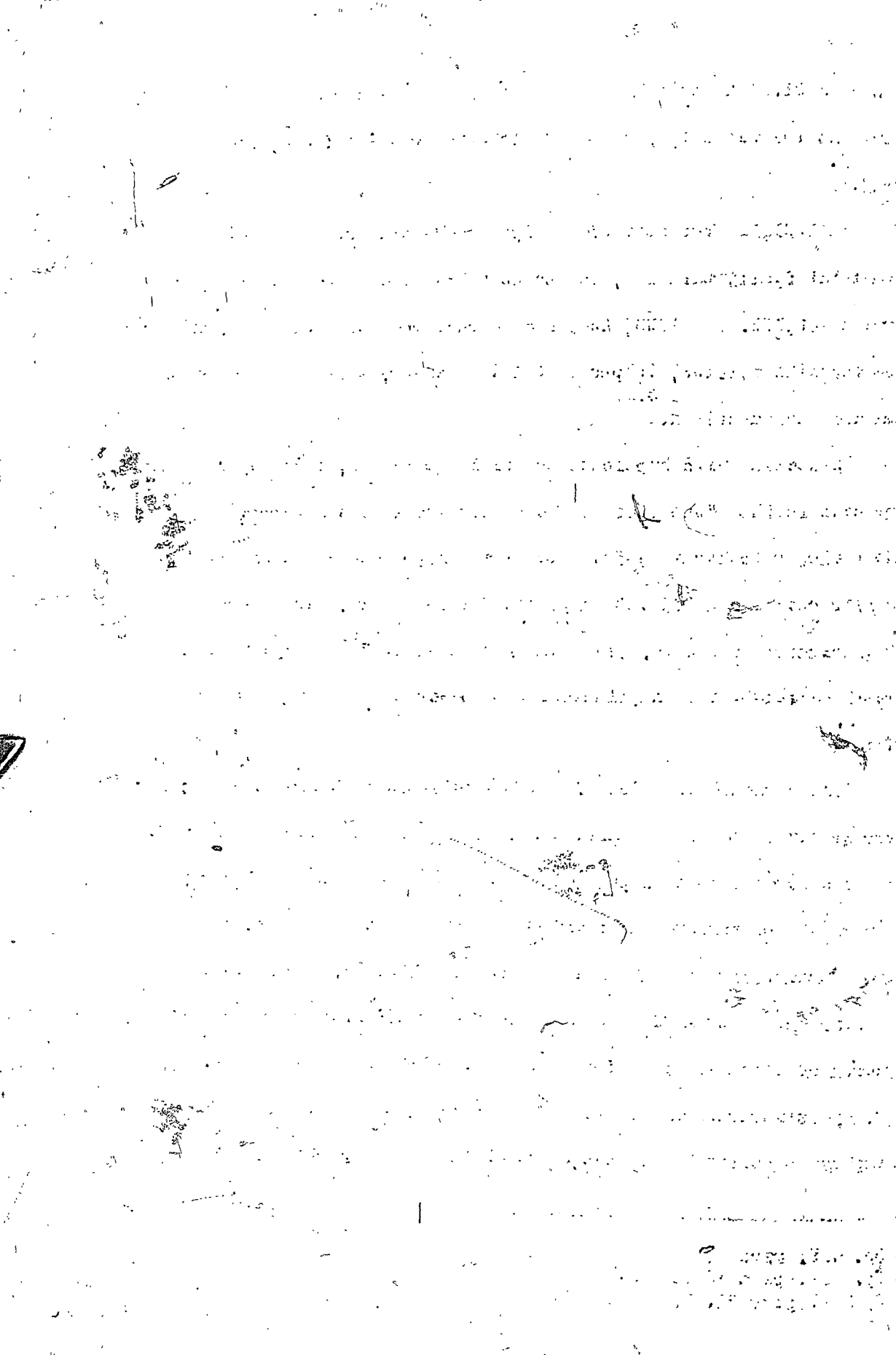
than in 1931. The decline in general living standards would be greater than that indicated by records of basic budgets for foods, fuel and rent".
I.

In 1931, 25 per cent of Winnipeg households received less than \$894 total family earnings, 50 per cent less than \$1,443 and 75 per cent less than \$2,163. In 1936, 25 per cent received less than \$665, 50 per cent less than \$1,152, 75 per cent less than \$1,769. It may be noted that all have declined.
2.

In dealing with supplementary family earnings, this report states that even in the "one family wage-earner households with husband and wife living together as joint heads - all supplementary earnings per family formed a significant proportion of the total, particularly in the higher earnings bracket". It states further that "the proportion of this type of household with supplementary wage-earners commonly exceeded one-fifth."
3.

"The economic position of the housewife is rather an anomaly; her services never come on the market and she is outside the price system; yet her contribution as a producer in the home holds a compelling position in the economic life of any community. More than this, she is found exerting an influence measured in many lines of manufactured commodities, while her efficiency as a homemaker affects the productive capacity of those members of the family at work outside the home. Further, the standards she maintains in her work, or wishes to attain, have an important bearing on a wide range of commercial products, for as a

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1. Op. Cit. Page 9.
 2. Op. Cit. page 10 Table 3
 3. Op Cit. page 21.



purchaser of foods and household goods she wields tremendous economic power".
I.

The married women of Canada, numbering 1,631,761 in 1921 together with numerous unmarried women and widows keeping house for their families, are doubtless producers in a very real sense, but they are not regarded as gainfully employed. It is however beginning to be conceded that the economic contribution of the two sexes to the welfare of the community cannot be regarded wholly in the light of the respective numbers of the two sexes gainfully employed.

The only State that has officially recognized the economic position of the homemaker is Sweden, where the wife is by law entitled to a portion of her husband's money-wage as compensation for her duties as a housewife. As one noted economist has put it - "The value added to goods by family activity, if it could be set down as a pecuniary sum, would make the railroad or the banking industry small by comparison".

Let us now consider a few outstanding figures that illustrate the increase of gainful employment among females in Canada.

1. "Women in the professions increased their numbers from 20,051 in 1891 to 118,670 in 1921 or nearly six-fold; in this field, owing to the great number of women teachers and nurses, they outnumbered the males, who were only 103,479 in 1921.

2. "In Trade and Merchandising, the gainfully employed females increased from 7,918 in 1891 to 77,911 in 1921 or almost ten-fold.

3. "In Civil and Municipal Government their numbers increased from 767 in 1891 to 12,582 in 1921 or over sixteen-fold".
2.

I. Mary Elizabeth Pidgeon, "Women in the Economy of the United States of America".

2. Census of Canada 1921, Volume 14, pages 2-7.



"This increase is to a great extent a matter of specialization of function rather than of the entry by women into fields with which they have had nothing to do in the past. Teaching and nursing, the making of clothes, the keeping of small shops, have always been pre-eminently women's employments, and the main difference between the present and the past is the more specialized manner in which such occupations are carried on in the community".
I.

However, it is but natural that along with the increase in the number of women gainfully employed they would assume an increasing responsibility for the financial support of others. We propose to attempt to determine to what extent this is so and wherever possible to relate that responsibility to what is correspondingly assumed by males.

One reason that has been advanced in order to justify the differential in men's and women's wages is that men have families to support. However, the unmarried man is not paid less than the family man because of his lack of dependents. In fact, a family wage system has never been attempted in this country. Men, ostensibly, are paid for the job done and not according to the number of their dependents. But low pay for women, is a traditional idea, based on many deep rooted prejudices, best shown in the economic position of the housewife and such ideas as the "pin-money" theory of wages. The argument used by employers who pay less than a living-wage to women, that they employ only women who live at home and who therefore have few expenses, needs to be brought into the light of day by a factual survey.

As an example of something done along that line, mention should be

made of "The Employed Girl Surveys Herself", issued by the Economics Department of the National Council, Y. W. C. A. in August, 1937. Among the questions asked, the following is of interest here:

"Do you have any financial responsibility for dependents?" Seven per cent of the women under the heading "business", earning less than \$50.00 a month, have responsibility for dependents. Ten per cent of those earning over \$50.00 a month have responsibility for dependents.

Housework: 23 per cent have responsibility for dependents, which is a large number considering the ages of the girls and the amount of earnings received in cash.

Office: 27 per cent have financial dependents. Four per cent on salaries less than \$50.00 per month.

Industry: 24 per cent have financial responsibility for dependents, thirteen per cent on salaries less than \$50.00 per month.

Professions: Financial obligations for dependents, and expenses, are large in proportion to earnings, but not as large in the professional group as in any other. Twenty-eight per cent have financial dependents; half of these earned less than \$75.00 a month, three per cent of those with dependents were on salaries of less than \$50.00 a month.

Referring to the Report of the Liaison Committee under the chairmanship of Mrs. Harvey Agnow on "Responsibility of Women Wage-Earners for Dependents", certain findings are of general interest.

The occupations represented in a group of 3,170 are:- teachers, nurses, librarians, social workers, Y.W.C.A., secretaries, dietitians, lawyers, physicians, clerks in business offices and private secretaries, salesgirls, hairdressers, industrial workers, (textile, laundry, manufacturing), waitresses, domestics and charwomen. As a cross-section

view Mrs. Agnew thinks "it has considerable value especially in view of the fact that the most careful study of the questionnaire reveals no apparent connection between family responsibilities and occupation, age, income or geographical location. The general picture simply confirms that well-known fact that wages and salaries are set with vague reference to the so-called "living-wage", and with due regard to custom and tradition, but without regard to the individual's personal responsibilities. As evidence to support this view we note that the highest percentage of those responsible for dependents occurs in the lowest income group, while the next highest occurs in the highest income group".

In dealing with the question of the responsibilities which women bear towards dependents, some classification as to status and degree of responsibility appears desirable. This we have sought to do, and although the lack of census data makes any appreciable number of absolute comparisons impossible, many facts do align themselves into the different classifications.

1. Married Women
2. Single Women (a) living at home
(b) not living at home

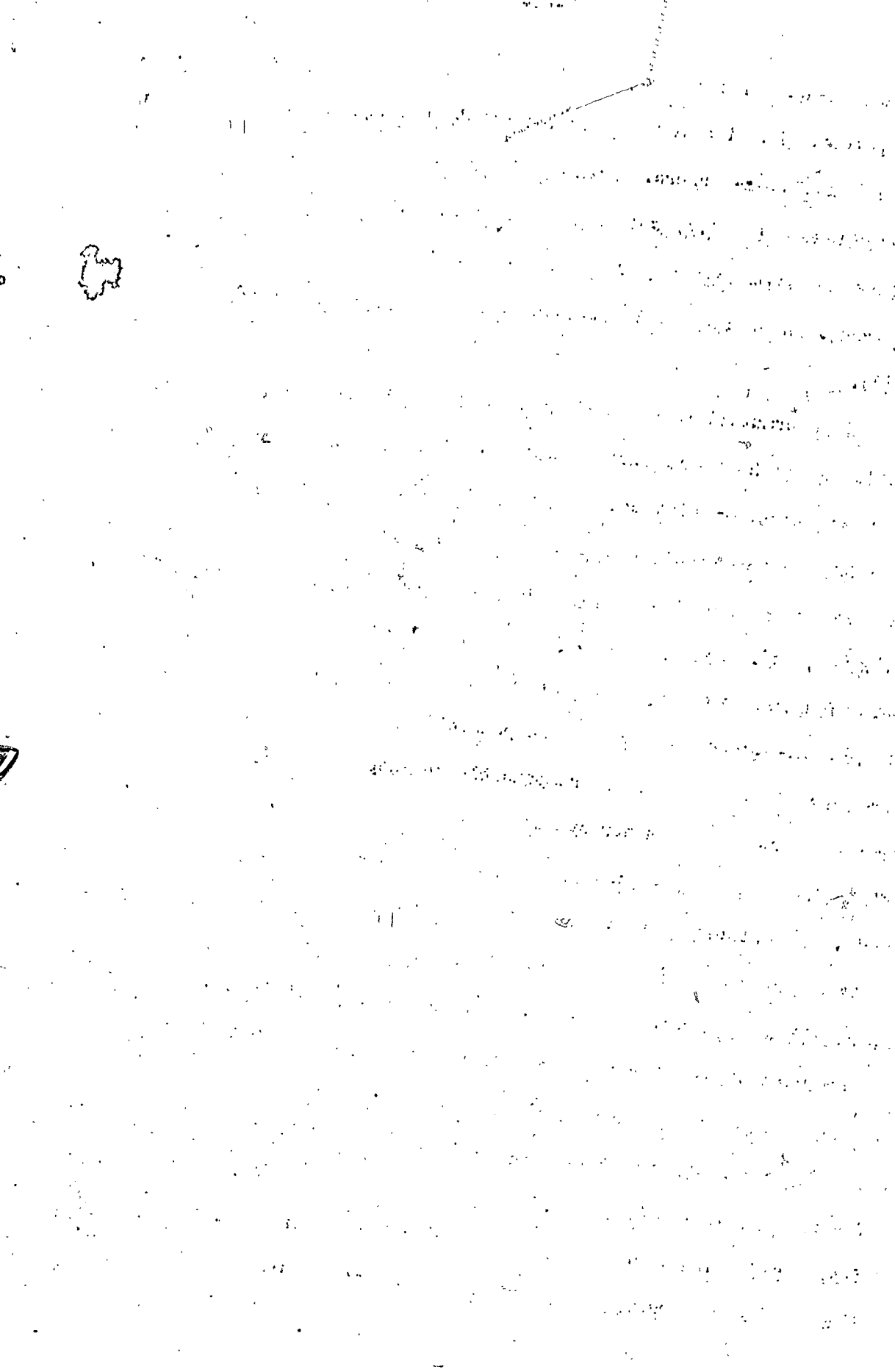
Besides, where data is available these should be studied under four separate categories; (a) women who are the sole support of families, (b) women responsible for support of dependents, (c) women as heads of families, (d) families with no male wage-earners.

Married women and single women living at home are variously divided among the above categories. For example, consider a married woman who may be and often is the sole support of a family; her husband may be unemployed or unemployable and yet is the nominal head in statistical reports. Married women, more frequently those widowed and divorced, may be

listed as heads of families, as in the case where the husband is mentally incompetent. Married women quite frequently nowadays belong to families with no male wage-earners. Even single women living at home may come under category (a) i.e. sole support of families, where the father, unemployed or unemployable, is still the head as far as census purposes are concerned. Also they quite frequently may be classified under (b), (c) or (d).

The permutations and combinations for a single woman wage-earner not living at home are many and varied. She might even come under the four categories simultaneously. For example a school teacher living away from her parental home has established herself in a home (c), she has living with her a widowed sister with one child and a niece at school, (a), (b), (d). Here you have a woman who is unmarried and yet is the head of a family of which she is the sole support. There are no male or other wage-earners, and she is responsible for dependents not in the ordinary sense in which a man is responsible for dependents, by choice, but more or less wished on her by necessitous circumstances. This latter fact is one which is frequently ignored in the case of women with dependents. The statistical data available to show in detail how women are responsible for the support of others is incomplete. For that reason, such possibilities as are mentioned above are merely illustrative. No doubt every person who reads this report will know of individual cases that fit into one or more of the categories mentioned.

Very often in considering the responsibility of women wage-earners for dependents we compare them with those of married men. This is manifestly unfair. According to the census of 1931 there were more single men than women in Canada, and in Manitoba there were actually 11,495 more



single men earning wages than single women, and in the age group 45-64 years there were 4,801 single men wage-earners in Manitoba as compared to 1,691 women. So that care must be taken that groups are comparable first as to marital status, second, wages and third, age. As it is only recently that these demands have been made on statistical data only a limited number of absolute deductions can be based on material available to date.

Let us now consider Table 24, headed "Families of wage-earners in Canada, classified according to earnings and sex of head for 1931". Here we find 1,137,924 families in Canada whose statistical heads are male, as compared to 45,403 families (or only 4%) whose heads are female. That the subsidiary earnings of families with both male and female heads are dictated by economic necessity can be seen by noting the decreasing per cent of women and children earning, as family income increases. One notable difference is that the proportion of those earning is always higher in the families whose heads are female. This is easily understood when one compares the average earnings of male and female heads, they are lower for female heads in every income group. Another noteworthy fact is that the average wage in each earnings group among the children earning is lower in families whose head is female. This would lead to the assumption that through economic necessity these children have been driven into the wage-earning class at an earlier age, and consequently through lack of education and vocational training have impaired their earning capacities.

Table 25 in Appendix C. provides similar data for Manitoba in 1931. In this case, we find 71,672 families of wage-earners with a male head, and 2,932 families of wage-earners with a female head. The same tendency in regard to per cent of those earning being less in the higher income brackets holds true. It may also be seen from this table that the

families of both male and female heads are largely concentrated in the low income brackets, in which the highest number of children and other dependents are found.

The situation in 1931 for families of wage-earners, classified as to sex of head is shown in Tables 26, 27 and 28. In the table below are calculated the average annual earnings per person in 1931 for both male and female head wage-earner families.

	<u>Canada</u>	<u>Manitoba</u>	<u>Winnipeg</u>
	Avg. Earnings per person \$	Avg. Earnings per person \$	Avg. Earnings per Person \$
<u>MALE</u>			
All Earnings	327.	352.	433.
Earnings over \$50 per annum	333.	361.	449.
<u>FEMALE</u>			
All Earnings	409.	437.	539.
Earnings over \$50 per annum	417.	449.	554.

We note here a uniformly higher income per person in female head families. The explanation would appear to be three-fold: (1) fewer dependents, (2) relatively more working members, (3) the provision for large numbers of female head families by such measures as mothers' allowances and widows' pensions, thus removing them from the wage-earner category.

Studying the composition of these families, we find that the per cent of children is higher in male-wage-earner families, but again the per cent of adult relatives is greater among female-head families, and of course, the wife consistently makes the male-head families larger. This seems to be an illustration of the economic contribution made to the home by the housewife. That she is able, with a money sum, on the



average smaller per person in her family, to "manage" so that families of male-head wage-earners appear the more prosperous is no little achievement. It also appears that our wage system is heavily weighed against the "family man" as "sole support" of his family. So far there is no recognition given in our wage system to the family as a unit.

In any case, in these families with female heads where the average earnings per working head are lower, the per capita purchasing power of the unit is greater. Besides these female heads of families, a great many women not considered family heads are at work in families who have no male wage-earners, as well as those whose earnings are subsidiary in families having male heads.

In Manitoba, over four per cent of all families have female heads, and besides this, eleven per cent of the family income in families with male heads is derived from the earnings of wives and children. This takes no account of unrecorded earnings. There were 2,182 married women working in 1931 but only 1,200 had recorded their earnings. In Winnipeg, the ratios are slightly higher. These figures take no account of the large number of female heads of families other than wage-earners.

The relatively small per cent of wives earning, when considered in relation to the general concentration of families in the low-income brackets, also indicates that the traditional tendency for housewives to remain in the home is still strong in Manitoba; as also are the restrictions against their employment in any except the menial tasks of the home. For example, our employment service states that about seventy-five per cent of charworkers and cleaners are married women; whereas only 7.11 per cent of females engaged in teaching school in Manitoba in 1931 were married, widowed or divorced, (calculated from Table 29 (b)). In

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Manitoba in 1931, there were 8,278 female wage-earners, nineteen years and under, as compared to 10,710 male wage-earners nineteen years and under, reporting earnings. Is there any reason for supposing that these boys would contribute relatively more towards family support than the girls? What portion of the \$2,289,000 earned by these girls, as compared to the \$3,366,000 earned by the boys, goes towards family support? We have no means of definitely establishing their contributions either from census data or field work. But, in the U.S.A. the Women's Bureau found that the sons were greater potential contributors, rated on actual earnings, than the daughters; but rated on the proportion of the family earnings actually contributed, the daughters ranked first. In the low wage brackets, however, it was quite customary for the entire earnings to be contributed to the family budget, more especially by the girls.

One of the greatest differences between the old and new order for women lies in the fact that, in many cases, marriage fails to bring to women the economic security considered formerly to be one of its chief advantages. Nowadays, marriage may bring new financial responsibilities for the wife as well as for the husband. Since able and deserving men in large numbers cannot earn sufficient for the needs of a family, a money contribution from the woman, as well as from the man, and often from the children, is a necessity.

We find that in 1936, there were 45,813 single men and 34,318 single women wage-earners in Manitoba (Table 31 (a)). In 1931, we found only 21,313 (Tables 27 (a) and (b)), sons and daughters (children) listed as earning members of families. Assuming that this number has



not increased greatly, as employment has been very restricted for young people in Manitoba in the past five years, we would have at present approximately 60,000 single wage-earners outside of family wage-earner statistics; probably a little more than half of whom are males. It would be interesting to find the relative contributions by sex of this large wage-earning group towards family support. Some data collected by the Women's Bureau, Washington, on women's share in family support, suggests that sons do not assume equal responsibility with daughters towards the parental home. However, it may be considered common knowledge that sons do not forego marriage and careers to anything like the extent that daughters do by remaining at home.

In the 1921 census, a resume was taken of females gainfully employed, by occupation group and conjugal condition. (Table 29 (b)). It will be noted that there were large numbers of widows and divorcees (51,956) in gainful occupations; and although many of these (12,353) are in agriculture and many doubtless "on own account", still we find the largest group (21,325) in personal service. But, among single women, this is distinctly less marked, although personal service is still the largest group numerically (95,685) as against clerical (85,989), professional (85,959), and manufacturing (76,614). Since older women would be more likely to be responsible in a direct sense for dependents, the tendency for dependence is readily traceable.

Table 29 (a) shows the private families, with or without children, classified according to conjugal condition and sex of head, for Canada, Manitoba and Winnipeg in 1921. We find here 1,817,030 families with male heads and 184,482 families with female heads, or over 10% of all families in the Dominion of Canada in 1921 had female heads; the war



being presumably partially responsible for this high ratio. Also, of the rural families, 44% of those with female heads had no children as compared with 46% of those with male heads. Almost 60% of urban families with female heads had no children as compared to 40% of those with male heads.

In Manitoba, over 8% of all families had female heads, only 27% of the rural families with female heads had no children, as compared to 39% of the male head families. Forty-four per cent of the urban Manitoba families having female heads had no children as compared to 37% of the male-head families. In Winnipeg, 41% of female-head families had no children compared with 38% in the case of those with male heads. Altogether, these figures show the responsibilities of women as heads of families, with and without children, and the absurdity of the statement so frequently made that women have no family responsibilities.

It may be noted that in families with female heads, approximately the same number are single as married, whereas there are twelve times as many married men heads of families as single men. Also, in the case of widowed heads of families, there are 53,335 more widows than widowers who are heads of families in Canada; in Manitoba, there are 3,347 more widows. As Table 29 (a) does not deal with wage-earners or gainfully employed, it is only important in showing the relative number of heads classified by conjugal condition and sex.

Table 29 (b) classifies gainfully employed females according to occupation and conjugal condition. For all women, personal service is the largest group, followed by professional service, clerical and manufacturing. But for married women, the order is changed; personal service comes first, with manufacturing second, professional service third, and



trade fourth.

Table 30 (a) shows the gainfully occupied, by conjugal condition, age and sex, for 1931. We find married, widowed and divorced men and women concentrated in the age groups 25-54. The numbers of both single men and women gainfully employed decline after reaching the 24 years group.

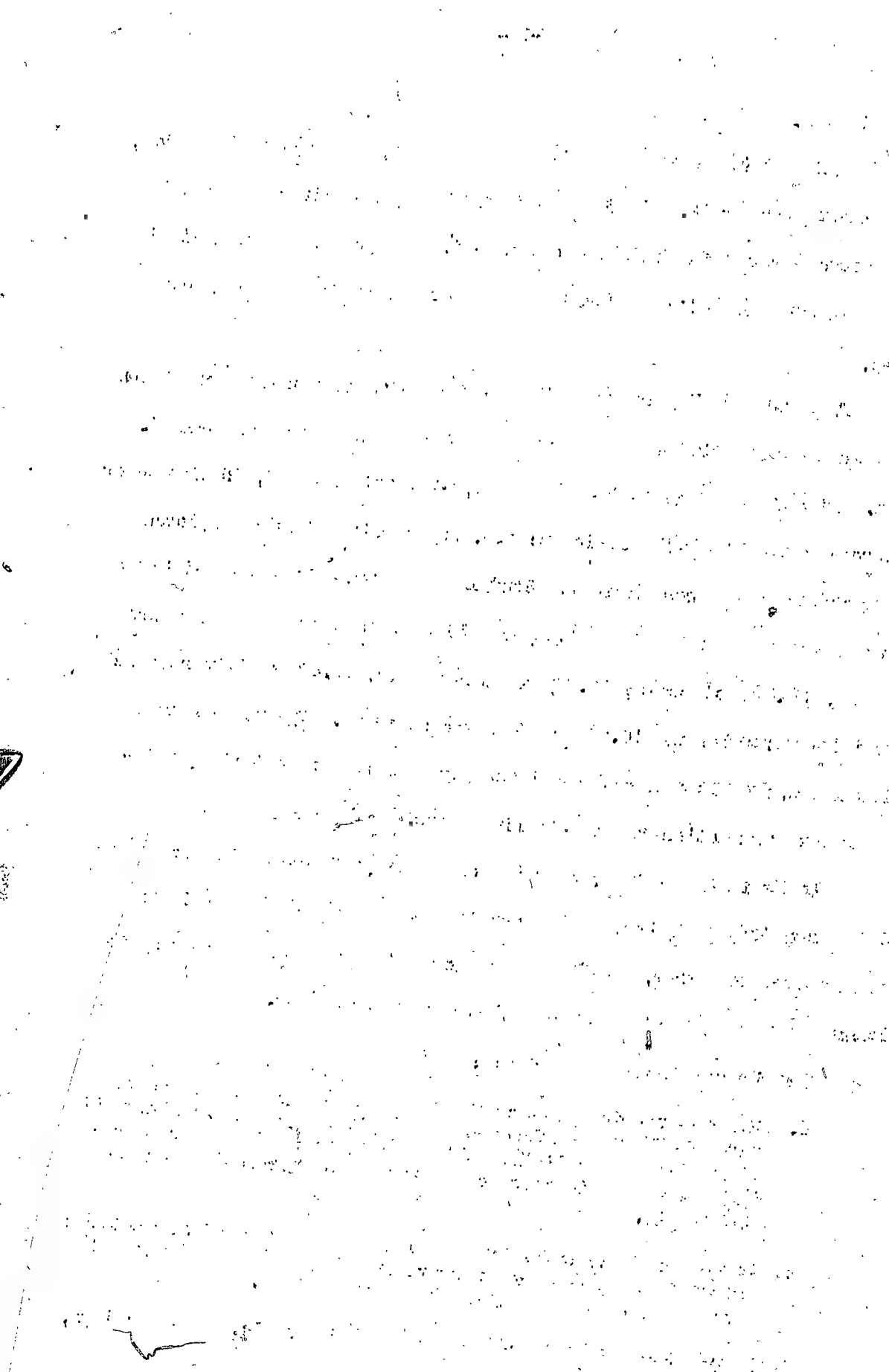
In Table 30 (b) are shown the distribution and conjugal condition of women employed in the most important occupation groups for women in 1931. Firstly we find 36,160 single, 4,827 married, and 3,915 widowed or divorced women gainfully employed; i.e. 20% of all gainfully employed women are or have been married. Studying the occupations engaged in by married women, we find that 71.96% of all charworkers and cleaners are married, 39.30% of cooks, 30.76% of dressmakers, 22.46% of labourers and unskilled workers, and 10.81% of domestic servants. The remainder are divided evenly between sewers and seamstresses not in factories, waitresses and confectionery and biscuit makers.

In Manitoba in 1931, over 50% of the married women who were gainfully occupied, were in personal service (this would be higher if based on wage-earners only). Domestic and personal service are of course the lowest paid and lowest in status of all the occupations.

Two important facts stand out:

1. The removal of all married women from the labour market would have little or no effect on the employment of men. Rather it might tend to swell the relief rolls, since the meagre earnings allowed this class of worker is most urgently required by the family.
2. It is quite evident from the nature of the occupations entered by women that economic pressure is by far the most important factor forcing women into the labour market.

Table 31 shows wage earners in Manitoba classified as to earnings,



conjugal condition, age and sex. Here, again are found the same concentration of wage-earners in the low wage groups that has been noted before. For example, the number of women, married and single, drops rapidly after the \$1000 per annum wage is reached. This is also true for single men. In the case of married men the drop does not occur until the earnings class \$1,450 - \$1,949 is reached. Very few single men and married and single women are to be found in the higher income brackets. This, of course, is to be expected among single men and women, but it also holds true of married women, which shows again that their opportunities for employment are very largely limited to low-wage jobs.

Approximately 8% of the males have no earnings, as compared to about 3% of the women. Under \$50 per annum can scarcely be considered a wage, yet the number under that figure comes to over 12% for men and over 13% for women. There are over 15% single men as compared to over 13% single women earning less than \$50 per annum. About 10% of the married men, as compared to 12% of the married women receive less than \$50 per annum.

In the 14-19 year age group, youth, both male and female, are exploited, as almost 90% of the young men and over 90% of the young women work for less than \$500 per annum. The most stable wage-earning group is between 20 and 44 years of age. But past 45 years, an exceptionally large percentage of married men and an even higher per cent of single men have absolutely no earnings; the reverse appears true of females, both married and single. It would appear then, that women and children, by going out to work, form the last line of economic defense for a large number of families whose male head is past 45 years of age.

Table 32 (a) shows the female wage-earner heads of private



families, by earnings group for the city of Winnipeg, 1936. The wage as always is of primary importance, and we find here the startling fact that the income per person in this type of family has been drastically cut, amounting now to \$229 per person per annum, as compared to \$467 in 1931. Omitting those on relief and those reporting no earnings, the figures become \$317 per person, as compared to \$481 for 1931.

As earnings for children are not stated for 1936, these average calculations are based on earnings of heads of families for both 1931 and 1936. Besides the extraordinary reduction in income per person in these families, there is a slight increase in their size, indicating greater dependencies for female wage-earners. Also the numerical decrease in female wage-earners who are heads of families from 1837 in 1931 to 732 in 1936 (omitting 89 on relief), is drastic, amounting to 59%.

Looking at Table 33, we find that the number and per cent of females in Manitoba not at work in 1936 is higher than in 1931. Both show some amelioration in the case of men in 1936 as compared to 1931. There has, then, been a relatively greater increase in the female working population than industry has been able to absorb. The difference favouring the males probably results from the greater immobility of the female working population, for as shown in the population study of the Economic Survey Board, men, especially young men, have left Manitoba in larger numbers than females since 1931. I.

Another noteworthy fact stands out, namely, the relatively small number of female heads of families who are wage-earners, as shown in Table 34. We find in Manitoba in 1936 a total of 12,796 families with

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. The letter is addressed to the Senate and the House of Representatives, and is signed by Abraham Lincoln. The letter discusses the state of the Union and the progress of the war against the Confederacy. It also mentions the Emancipation Proclamation and the importance of the Union's cause.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Edwin M. Stanton. The report discusses the military situation in the South and the progress of the Union's army. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Gideon Welles. The report discusses the state of the Navy and the progress of the Union's fleet. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Alexander C. Gibson. The report discusses the state of the Treasury and the progress of the Union's finances. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Interior Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Caleb B. Smith. The report discusses the state of the Interior and the progress of the Union's land policy. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Edwin M. Stanton. The report discusses the military situation in the South and the progress of the Union's army. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

7. The seventh part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Gideon Welles. The report discusses the state of the Navy and the progress of the Union's fleet. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

8. The eighth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Alexander C. Gibson. The report discusses the state of the Treasury and the progress of the Union's finances. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

9. The ninth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Interior Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Caleb B. Smith. The report discusses the state of the Interior and the progress of the Union's land policy. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

10. The tenth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War Department, dated January 10, 1862. The report is addressed to the President and the Congress, and is signed by Edwin M. Stanton. The report discusses the military situation in the South and the progress of the Union's army. It also mentions the importance of the Union's cause and the need for more resources.

female heads, 9,056 of these have children living at home, 2,048 are persons of seventy years and over. Of the 57,478 rural families, it may be assumed that a considerable number would be "on own account" as the largest number of females in that category is usually in agriculture. Besides unemployment relief, the dependency of a large number of these falls into the categories of old age pensions, "mothers' allowances, compensations, war-widow, and other pensions and social welfare cases.

The extraordinary number of dependencies here indicates the difficulties presenting themselves to married women in need of employment. With certain adjustments, this burden now carried in various ways by the government could, with benefit to all, be shifted in a much greater measure to industry. In the words of Mrs. Harvey Agnew, in her Report of the Liaison Committee on "Responsibility of Women Wage-Earners for Dependents": "Specific encroachments upon the rights and liberties of women are the denial of women's right to earn a living; the denial, more particularly, of married women's right to free access to the labour market". This demand of women for the "right to earn" is essentially the same as the protests voiced against "unemployment relief" as at present constituted, the protest of free-born individuals against "pauperism as a national institution". There is a growing feeling that it is as much the duty of the state to protect its citizens against industrial exploitation as against attack from a foreign foe. Research into the question of the economic status of women is merely a phase of that larger problem.

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CHAPTER 7

THE EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING OF WOMEN RELATED
TO THEIR OPPORTUNITIES FOR EMPLOYMENT

In the days of Charles II of England the gentlemen of the court thought that "women were educated enough if they could spell out the recipes for pies and puddings, the manufacture of which nature had entrusted to their tender mercies". If that is a long step from conditions as they exist today for women in England and in Canada, so it is also for men. The chief distinction in the progress that has been made through the years for men and women lies in the fact that, in theory at least, women have won co-educational advantages with men. The chief differences that exist lie in the lack of co-occupational opportunities for women. The increased emphasis and development of education for women should be noted, but women must not forget that by means of the compulsory school attendance acts, education for both sexes has been tremendously advanced. According to the Canada Year Book, 1937, "the average time spent in school has increased at the rate of one month per year since 1911; i.e., twenty months or two years of attendance per child in twenty years. The number of pupils continuing their education beyond the elementary schools has increased very much more rapidly than the total enrolment. Also in each of the provinces, and in every year, the number of girls in the secondary grades has exceeded the number of boys. Another characteristic is a much greater number of urban than of rural children. The census of 1931 indicated that only 25.4% of rural children in the age group 15-19 years were in school, as compared with 41.2% of urban children of the same age group".

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The teaching staffs of day schools under provincial control in Canada consisted, in 1935, of 73,921 teachers, 18,189 males and 55,732 females. Almost the whole of the increase of 3,500 teachers since 1930 has been in the male class. These figures show the greatly increased attendance, more especially in our secondary schools. In fact it is now recognized that the secondary school is no longer selective, either socially or occupationally. We have, indeed, travelled a long way in the United States and in Canada since Emma Willard of New York, an early advocate of more substantial training for girls, said that the "absurdity of sending women to college must strike everyone".

According to information received from W. J. Spence, University Registrar, the first woman graduate in Arts in Manitoba was Mrs. J. N. Munroe (Nee Jessie Livingstone Holmes) 1889; in Science Miss Annie Norrington, 1917; in Medicine Dr. Elizabeth B. Matheson, 1904; in Architecture Miss B. Ethelyn Wallace, 1932; in Agriculture Mrs. S. E. Clark, 1922; in Law Isabel Rose MacLean (Mrs. I. R. Hunt), 1916. Miss Winnifred M. Wilton - now Mrs. Wilson - was the first woman admitted to the Law Society of Manitoba. In the first class in Home Economics, 1918, there were six members, one of these, Miss Esther Thompson, is Director of the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture.

"In Canada there were in 1934-5, 4,274 bachelor degrees granted to men, and 1,476 to women, 960 diplomas to men and 1,552 to women. The graduate degrees granted included 448 master degrees to men and 106 to women. Those completing the doctorate were 80 men and 5 women; while honorary doctor degrees were conferred on 67 men and 2 women".

The following information was obtained from the records of the [illegible] Department, [illegible] Office, [illegible] City, [illegible] State, [illegible] Country, [illegible] Date.

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These facts and figures show the great progress made in education for both sexes, and more specifically how rapidly and efficiently women have availed themselves, in an academic way, of their co-educational opportunities.

The fact that there are more girls than boys in the secondary grades might conceivably be taken as a sign of greater mental competence, but instead, the position is taken that the courses do not appeal to boys. Little significance, however, seems to be given to the opposite factor; namely, that academic courses obviously have a definite appeal to women.

Insofar as the courses in our secondary schools prepare the student for university admission, thus leading to the various professions, they are in a sense vocational. But, in a great measure, the prestige of the professions rests upon the fund of academic learning which they have always required. It does, therefore, appear that women, in their very successful entry into colleges and universities, are seeking this prestige of academic learning as much, perhaps more, than the actual vocations offered in the various professions. They realize that without this prestige they cannot compete on a fair basis with men.

The problem of the single male and female leaving school without sufficient training and opportunity to secure gainful employment has become one of the highest magnitude during the past few years. According to the census of 1936, there were 8,906 young people between the ages of 14-24 in Winnipeg who were not attending school and who had never been gainfully occupied. The following table treats this fact in greater detail.



Single males and females, 14-24 years of age, not attending school and never gainfully employed, Winnipeg, 1936 -

<u>AGE</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Total	4,392	4,514	8,906
14-15 yrs.	89	114	203
16-17 "	694	797	1,491
18-19 "	1,369	1,456	2,825
20-24 "	2,240	2,147	4,387

Thus, in Winnipeg alone - and other western cities are faced with much the same problem - there were, in 1936, 8,906 young persons between 14 and 24 years of age not at school, never gainfully employed and seeking jobs.

Because of the concentration of women workers in the lower age groups, the problems of youth and of women are somewhat similar. We pride ourselves on the fact that we have in Canada, to a considerable extent, eliminated child labor. Nevertheless in spite of wide-spread unemployment, it was estimated on the basis of 1931 statistics, that 11% of our 14-year-olds; 27% of our 15-year-olds, and 55% of our 16-year-olds were already gainfully employed. But we tend to forget that the removal of boys and girls from industry is merely negative legislation. Prohibition of child labor, compulsory school attendance, loss of opportunity for industrial training in the homes of today, and the complication of industrial processes push into the foreground the problems connected with industrial and trade education, apprenticeship and placement.

Although something has been done in the matter of vocational training for women, there is very little co-ordination, and too haphazard methods prevail in regard to employment. Nurses are trained by a combination of lecture and apprenticeship methods in our larger

1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific requirements of the task.

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1. The first step is to identify the problem or question that needs to be answered. This involves understanding the context and the specific information required.

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hospitals. The academic requirements for teachers are being raised and successful experience is also required for permanent professional standing. Women are admitted to certain courses in trade schools; fairly extensive training is given in hairdressing and beauty culture; there are courses and examinations in music, commercial art and the civil service. We have then certain avenues of special training open to women, but co-ordination and direction in the matter of placement are decidedly inadequate, in fact almost non-existent. How much of that large agglomeration of women on unemployment relief which has accrued to us during recent years could have been directed to some remunerative work, firstly by methods of vocational guidance and training, and secondly by adequate placement facilities, is a question deserving serious thought.

Mrs. W. J. Lindal, Chairman of the Women's Employment Committee, speaking of education as a factor in employment, places the onus more directly on the school. She says in part - "It is an error to think that only a few subjects can help the mind of the child to unfold - vocational education should give scope to creative ability. It is possible for schools to reconstruct their curricula to the point where the teaching of "practical arts" shares in prestige with the fine arts and sciences. Students should be taught to solve problems pertinent to their interests and needs. There are many whose minds can be better trained in this way than by theory, calculation or languages. There is need for early recognition of the natural ability of the child and the adjustment of curricula to these needs. Rural, as well as urban children, should be provided with education suited to their ability, whether it be academic, general education, or practical courses; it should be provided to stimulate and train the technical mind as well

as the academic".

Specific attempts have been made in rural Manitoba for many years to give instruction to women and girls along practical lines outside of the public school system, through the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture. Much good work has been accomplished by this agency working through women's organizations; notably, the Women's Institutes and farm women locals. The Women's Institutes have emphasized educational work and sponsored the music festival which has now become well established. They are continuing to sponsor spoken poetry, drama and folk dance festivals. Miss Esther Thompson, the very able Director of Women's Work in the Extension Service, also edits the Institute News. The Extension Service carries on courses in foods and nutrition, home crafts, clothing, glove-making, homemaking, including schools for girls.

Added impetus has of late been given to extension work in rural areas. Homemaking schools were held in nine centres in Manitoba. Their location and attendance were as follows:

<u>Centre</u>	<u>Attendance</u>	
Altona	19	Co-educational; residential term three months.
Manitou	26	Co-educational.
Souris	28	
Minnedosa	43	
Dauphin	33	Co-educational
Swan River	18	
Arborg	38	
St. Norbert	40	
The Pas	31	
TOTAL	277	

At Altona, a district settled largely by people of German origin, the young men were reported as having a better education than the girls. The Pas had twelve nationalities represented. The method of teaching



followed was "learning by doing". The subjects taught varied from folk dancing, physical training, literature, to bulb-culture, etc. Courses included foods, clothing, child care, home nursing, home care and management, laundry, social customs and courtesies, citizenship and homecrafts.

It is important here to appraise rightly the economic value of the work done in rural homemaking instruction. To the low money value traditionally placed on the work done by women in their homes, can be traced many of the injustices met with by the women who must go out of the home and work for wages. Woman's position as a producer in the home is important in any community, but more so in the rural than in the urban home, because, generally speaking, home production remains in the country districts after it has been abandoned in the towns.

The function of the housewife as a producer in the home is of great economic value when relegated to a capable trained domestic. But it cannot conceivably be adequately fulfilled by members of an occupation for whom little, if any, training is provided, whose remuneration is low, and whose ranks are so largely depleted of capable and efficient workers by the contempt in which it is held.

This fact is gaining recognition in various parts of the world. In Sweden for example, training for household service is subsidized by the government. In the United States the Works Progress Administration has established 137 domestic training schools throughout the country. As here, though probably less so, many jobs available for domestics are substandard, i.e. the housewife expects too much for too little money. However, it is now generally admitted that even enormous relief rolls offer no ready-made solution of the servant problem. Hence the need of training for the specific occupation of domestic service in place of

present haphazard methods is at least gaining recognition.

Initially sponsored by the Women's Employment Committee, in the belief that a certain amount of trained part-time help is required by Winnipeg housewives, specialized service training was begun, September 1, 1937, the object being to obtain jobs for some of the unemployed young women. The training for regular household workers is given at a residential school which accommodates twenty-four girls and a three months' training is given; then specialized service training is given daily at the Y.W.C.A. in party help, suite care, dressmaking, laundry and handicrafts. This course also lasts for three months. A specialized Employment Bureau designed for the registration, vocational guidance and placement of unemployed young women for specialized work, has been established under the able direction of Miss F. J. Olsen. That women have themselves been guilty of exploiting the young, untrained and inexperienced girl who has engaged in domestic service is apparent. It is hoped that, by establishing "codes" and producing a trained service worker, both employer and employee will benefit.

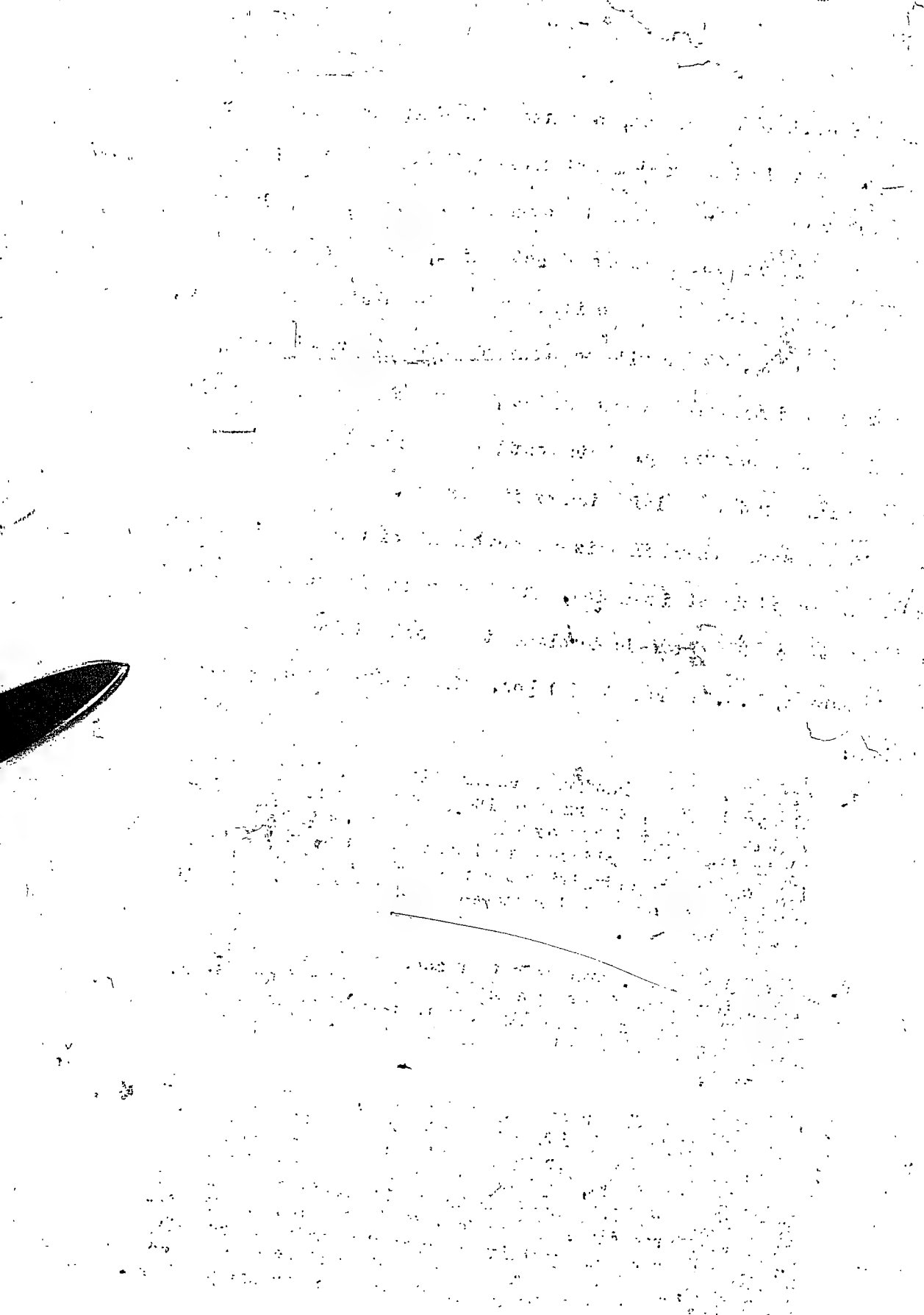
It is argued that there must be something wrong with our educational system if a situation exists where young people are both out of jobs and out of school. It must, of course, be borne in mind that purely vocational education can only train the individual; it cannot make the job. Canada must, however, either develop her human resources, recognizing the importance of technical, commercial and technological education, or be relegated to the position of a backward nation employing cheap and low standard manual labour in ineffectual competition with

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technically efficient machines, operated by skilled workers in other countries. That is the problem that faces us today, and the displaced manual worker of yesterday looks to secondary education, not only to "train" his children for a change of occupation, but to so stimulate the inventive and mechanical genius of the nation that we may maintain, as far as possible, the privileged position gained by Britain by reason of priority in industrial development or, at the very least, a position of equality with her rivals. This position can never be maintained in a country which permits exploitation of its workers.

It may seem absurd in this connection to point to women's contributions in the field of invention, But this is one of the many interesting phases of the economic development of women studied by the Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. They arrived at three conclusions:

1. "In view of the handicaps under which women inventors have always labored, the rate of increase in the number of inventions patented by women and the range and quality of their inventive achievements furnish an argument for expanding women's opportunities for research and experiment and securing to women easier access to facilities essential in patent procedure.
2. Women inventors, even more than men, are in need of facilities for marketing or promoting their patented creations, because women are generally more restricted in funds and less informed concerning the methods of profitable patent disposal.
3. The Patent Office records, on the whole, furnish a reasonable guaranty that with a reduction in the excessive discouragements due to frequent failures to realize money quickly on patents, with an expansion of opportunities for research, and with easier access to the facilities essential to patent procedure, the nation will be rewarded by the increased measure of inventive service from women of creative abilities; and capable women will find constantly enlarging opportunities in this branch of the field of creative labor".



Educated women today are becoming conscious of the need for research, primarily, into their own economic status, and, broadly speaking, into the underlying causes of the ills that afflict them, and their solution by practical remedies. The Women's Employment Committee, whose chairman, Mrs. W. J. Lindal, B.A., L.L.B., is a resident of Winnipeg, in their report recommend "the establishing in the Dominion Department of Labor of a Women's Bureau to undertake research in connection with the employment of women".

Miss Charlotte Whitton, speaking to the Rowell Commission for the Canadian Welfare Council, held it to be "the first duty of the state to assure its citizens such conditions of gainful occupation as to make possible at least a minimum subsistence".

Obviously if it becomes recognized as the duty of the state to see that employment is made available to all, then automatically the state would interest itself in vocational training on a scale hitherto undreamed of in this country. We have already become accustomed to the idea of compulsory education; the only change then would be in the scope of that education.



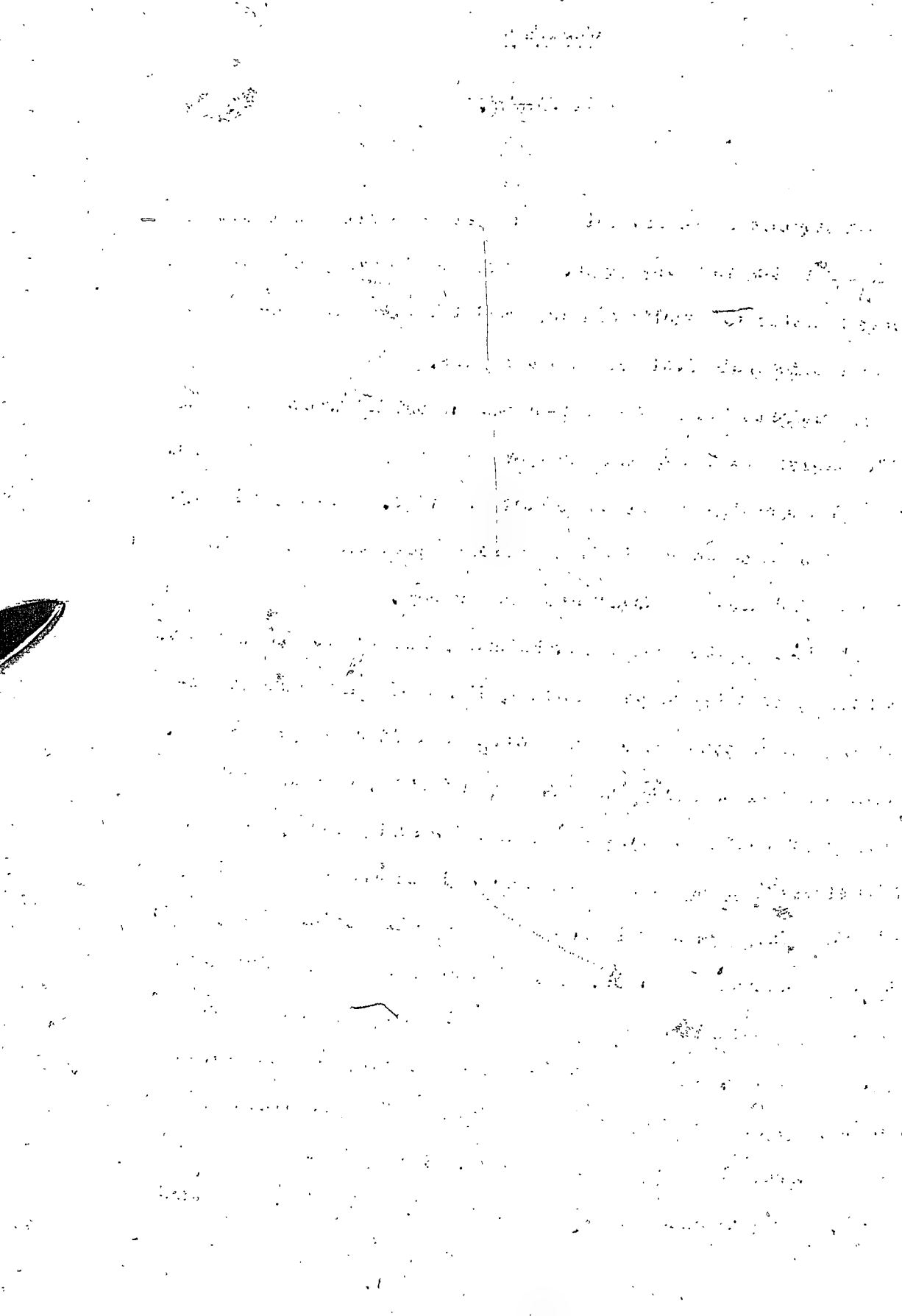
CHAPTER 8

UNEMPLOYMENT.

Unemployment as an economic and social phenomenon has existed in most modern states for many years. It was not, however, generally recognized as a matter for public concern until the number of wage-earners affected assumed relatively large proportions.

The ultimate ideal of a well-planned industrial economy has been said to revolve about the need for providing every member of the community with the opportunity for employment at a wage. Further, this wage must permit of a standard of living consonant with the state of industrial development and natural resources of the country.

"If, in order to function efficiently, industry retains a reserve of workers to meet its varying demands, it should make adequate provision for the maintenance of that reserve when it cannot be absorbed. If employers fail to recognize this responsibility, they are giving away one of the main defences of the existing system under which the capitalist asks the workers to unite with him in undertaking an industrial enterprise. He says in effect, if you will provide labour, I will provide the necessary capital. The first claim upon the product of our joint enterprise shall be the payment to you week by week of agreed wages. After that, the other charges of the industry must be met, and then, if there is anything over, I will take it as a recompense for the service I render in providing the capital. Since I take the risks of industry, I am justified in taking the profits. But if the capitalist



leaves the worker to face the risk of unemployment unaided, he abandons the ground on which he justifies himself in taking all the profits, and his claim to do this can no longer be defended".^{I.}

When industry in Canada failed to provide the opportunity for work for large numbers of our citizens, governments assumed, temporarily, it was thought, responsibility for their maintenance. It is not intended at this point to analyze extensively the allocation of responsibility for either unemployment or unemployment relief, as the problem does not differ basically for males and females. In a general way, the unemployment situation as it affects male wage-earners reflects the position of women as well. The assumption that it is the function of industry to provide work, as well as to make goods, is now being questioned by certain economists of the day. But assuming that provision of work is a function of industry, clearly it has been carried out with tragic inefficiency. Conversely, if it is not a basic function of industry to produce work - and indeed work for work's sake is not in itself a virtue, but merely a means towards a desirable end - then the whole position held by industry today becomes untenable and subject to revision. At least, it seems only fair to point out that, after the millions spent to take care of the victims of unemployment, the situation has not been materially improved - sufficient justification for suggesting that some thought be given to the fundamental causes. In this section of our report we are chiefly concerned with the phases of unemployment that concern women especially.

One of the factors tending to accentuate conditions of unemployment for indigent women is the generally greater immobility of the

I. B. Seeborn Rowntree, "Unemployment Compensation and Aid to Economic Security".

female population. This tendency was more pronounced during the depression years when unusually large populations were to be found in urban centres. Furthermore, the stringent residential qualifications adopted in the relief system in Canada introduced an unnatural rigidity in respect to population; hence, the immobility of female labour, always high, became abnormally emphasized. This condition is very marked in the city of Winnipeg.

The following table dealing with people on relief shows the extent of rigidity in respect to population on relief, introduced in Manitoba by government policy:

Year of last employment at usual or normal occupation of fully employable persons in receipt of material aid to which the Dominion contributed, Manitoba, September 1937.¹

<u>Year</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>
At part-time work	315	88	403
Last employed in 1937	2,885	628	3,513
" " " 1936	1,126	240	1,366
" " " 1935	599	125	724
" " " 1934	412	109	521
" " " 1933	405	88	493
" " " 1932	524	76	600
" " " 1931	463	57	520
" " " 1930	1,041	112	1,153
Or previously			
Unspecified	39	13	52
Never gainfully employed	73	534	607
Total	7,882	2,070	9,952

In reviewing these figures, their cumulative effect should be borne in mind. Even where the number for each year is not particularly large, the aggregate is considerable. Another point that merits serious thought, and it would appear that this is even more marked in the case

¹. "Report of National Unemployment Commission".

of women than men, is that the struggle for economic independence has in varying degrees been abandoned before relief is accepted. This, though it appears that deterioration of employability increases in direct ratio to the period of dependence, there is probably seldom displayed, after relief has been accepted, the same intense degree of effort in securing employment as was put forth prior to its acceptance. For this reason, the old idea that prevention is better than cure deserves attention when considering this problem.

Finally, the residence qualifications required of relief recipients doubtless affect these totals. Thus certain sociological problems definitely affecting needy, unemployed women appear to be inherent in the system of administering relief. Since all sociological problems inevitably have their economic side, and become very costly under inefficient administrative methods, it appears evident that too little thought and study in regard to causes, and almost no constructive action along preventive lines have been attempted.

The following table shows that the female population of Manitoba between the years 1931 and 1936 increased by about 10,000, and the number of gainfully employed females increased by slightly less than 1,000. Another important fact relative to employment is that, whereas the female population increased by 10,562 between 1931 and 1936, the female population of working ages increased by 15,050.



FEMALES

	1931	1936	Increase
Total Population	332,074	342,636	10,562
Population 15 to 64 years of age	209,865	224,915	15,050
Gainfully occupied	44,908	45,811	903
Wage-Earners	37,856	38,468	612
At Work	33,507	33,801	294
Not at work	4,349	4,667	318

The increase in the female population has not been accompanied by a corresponding increase in the gainfully employed. Also, unemployment among female wage-earners is further complicated by the fact that in times of depression the available supply of female labour, even in a static population, may be considerably increased by economic pressure. Thus a relatively larger body of women workers seek entry into the labour market at a time when it is least able to absorb additional numbers.

Unemployment, as it affects women, ought to be studied from two aspects. First, its repercussions on that body of women customarily or potentially in gainful occupations. Second, its effects upon women ordinarily dependent financially upon males in gainful employment. The following table approaches the question from the second viewpoint:

Non-worker dependents of heads of families in receipt of material aid to which the Dominion contributed, September 1937 I.

<u>Manitoba</u>	<u>Wives</u>	<u>Children</u>	<u>Dependents</u>	<u>Total</u>
Cities over 25,000	4,811	8,840	863	14,514
Cities 10,000 to 25,000	784	1,894	245	2,923
Towns 1,000 to 10,000	349	789	53	1,201
Rest of Province	1,400	3,291	264	4,955
Total	7,344	14,824	1,425	23,593



When we consider that in the province of Manitoba alone, almost 24,000 persons are dependent upon family heads on relief, and that almost 15,000 of these are children, the tremendous social and economic cost to the community is apparent. If this large number of people were being taken care of by unemployment compensation to which the worker and industry had contributed in the past, the net result might be an increase in economic security. It is not suggested that the male heads of these families are unemployable, at least initially - or even that many of the 7,344 dependant wives are not potential workers - but the tabulated figures indicate clearly that industry has failed to absorb these workers.

In Winnipeg, as at June 1936, approximately 63% of those who were not at work were on relief, leaving an appreciable number not at work who are outside of relief rolls. The social cost to women and children which is entailed through the disappearance of accumulated reserves and restriction of opportunity is evident.

EXTENT OF FEMALE UNEMPLOYMENT

Contrary to general opinion, there has been little or no attempt to measure the extent of unemployment among women in Canada or in Manitoba, except that a register has been kept in Manitoba (and some of the other provinces) of those in receipt of unemployment relief. But the problem is a much broader one. There are data available for the census years 1931 and 1936 which indicate the larger problem of unemployment. The following table states the number of female wage-earners in Manitoba.¹

<u>Year</u>	<u>Wage-earners</u>	<u>Not at work</u>	<u>No Job</u>	<u>Other Causes</u>	<u>% No Job</u>
1931	37,856	4,349	3,615	734	9.5%
1936	38,468	4,665	3,243	1,422	8.4%



There were 37,856 female wage-earners in Manitoba in 1931, of which 4,349 were not at work, and 3,615 of the latter had no job. In 1936, there were 38,468 female wage-earners in Manitoba, of which 4,665 were not at work, and 3,243 of those not at work had no job. This means that in 1931, 9.5% of female wage-earners in Manitoba were unemployed because of lack of employment, compared with 8.4% in 1936.

In the 1936 census, the 14 - 24 year age group, including those who were not at school and those who had never worked and who were seeking employment, was isolated. In this way the number of wage-earners reported in 1936 was greatly reduced.

Single females 14 - 24 yrs., not attending school and never gainfully employed, but seeking employment, Winnipeg, 1936.

<u>TOTAL</u>	4,514
14 - 15 years	114
16 - 17 years	797
18 - 19 years	1,456
20 - 24 years	2,147

If this group for Winnipeg alone were to be added to the total number of unemployed female wage-earners in Manitoba, the situation changes and the percentage of women unemployed in 1936 becomes greater than in 1931. The total figure for Manitoba females in this category is approximately 8,000. Actually, even omitting this group, owing to the increase in the number of wage-earners, there is an absolute increase in the number of women out of work.

The statements of relief expenditures by the three governments, Dominion, provincial and municipal, do not allocate costs according to sex, with the result that it is impossible to present a complete picture of the cost to the government of unemployment relief for women. This



cost, of course, owing to the very large number of unemployed women not on relief, is only a small fraction of the actual cost to the community. Our provincial and municipal governments, unable to meet the financial cost through current revenue, are piling up a burden of debt. But at least in so doing, they have abandoned the old laissez-faire attitude toward labour, apparently recognizing that exploitation has taken place and that it is their function to protect the worker. If it could be shown that the present system of unemployment relief would in some way benefit posterity in return for the debt with which it will be saddled, it might be justified. On the contrary, however, it acts as a subsidy to industry, making always available an exploitable worker, and the net result is economic insecurity and unrest.

Manitoba has legislation which is second to none in the Dominion of Canada, for the protection of the worker. It has laws regulating hours of work, a minimum wage act, as well as regulations designed to safeguard the health of the worker. Its laws permit workers to associate freely for the purpose of bargaining collectively with employers. But the difficulties in the way of enforcing such laws are seriously enhanced by the large numbers of unemployed seeking entry to the labour market, thereby jeopardizing the security of those at work. The consensus of opinion appears to be that women, being a class of worker that is peculiarly exploitable, benefit by protective legislation, more especially the minimum wage acts and health regulations. But in times of stress, ways and means are found of circumventing such laws; the great need of the worker for a wage, however meagre, makes exploitation relatively easy.

It is contended that the city of Winnipeg, by maintaining a relatively high standard of unemployment relief, did at least partially succeed in preventing exploitation of labour, especially that of working girls. This is in contrast to the conditions revealed by the Steven's Report to have existed in the wealthier and more highly industrialized provinces of Ontario and Quebec. However, without a doubt, a factual survey is urgently needed in Winnipeg to ascertain to what extent circumvention of labour laws exists, and how, and where exploitation is occurring.

Part III of Manitoba's Submission to the Rowell Commission has dealt with the effects of federal monetary policy on the western Canadian economy. The result of these policies has been to restrict purchasing power in the West; with a consequent effect upon employment, particularly in Winnipeg, which has been more seriously affected by depressed conditions than any other large Canadian city.

Besides employment in Manitoba, particularly among women in industry, has had to meet the competition of the products of low wage workers in the East. When Manitoba attempts, by labour legislation, to protect her worker against exploitation, which is still permitted in the sister provinces, she exposes her industries to unfair competition from which they need protection. This is rather ironical in view of the fact that Eastern Canada has always proclaimed its need of tariff protection against cheap labour in foreign countries.

"If the employers in a particular trade are able to take such advantage of the necessities of their work people as to hire them for wages actually insufficient to provide enough food, clothing and shelter to maintain them permanently in average health; if they are able to work



them for hours so long as to deprive them of adequate rest and recreation; or if they can subject them to conditions so dangerous or insanitary as positively to shorten their lives; that trade is clearly obtaining a supply of labour force which it does not pay for".^I

Many facts brought out by the Royal Commission on Price Spreads and Mass Buying in 1934 and 1935 are definitely anti-social in character. In a submission to that Commission entitled, "Report on Labour Conditions in Industries Employing Women Needle Workers in Toronto", by Winnifred Hutchison, B.A., many instances are found of severe drops in wages due to:

1. Lowering of piece rates.
2. Open violations of the Minimum Wage Act.
3. A great increase in part-time employment.

She says further in "The Social Aspects of Labour Conditions in Industries Employing Women Needle Workers" - "The needle industry presents one of the greatest hazards in industrial life through its inroads on the health of many thousands of Canadian women, through the devastating pressure caused by speed-up methods, through exhaustion produced by hours of overtime, and through the nerve strain of uncertainty of the amount of the weekly wage, due largely to the abuse of the piece-rate system".

The existence of conditions such as these even in a sister province (and actually how far they exist in Manitoba has never been ascertained by any sort of field survey, such as has in fact been attempted in the East) cannot but affect the employment opportunities for women

I. Douglas Hitchcock Aikins - "The Worker in Modern Economic Society".



in Manitoba.

The following table shows in 27 selected occupations for women the conditions that obtained in Winnipeg in 1936.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT, BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS FOR

FEMALES, WINNIPEG 1936

<u>OCCUPATIONS</u>	<u>Number of WAGE-EARNERS</u>	<u>NOT AT WORK</u>	<u>% NOT AT WORK.</u>
Bookbinders	78	11	14.10
Bookkeepers, cashiers	728	66	9.06
Charworkers and cleaners	154	25	16.23
Confectionery and biscuit makers	54	14	25.92
Cooks	252	41	16.26
Domestic servants	4,606	471	10.22
Furriers	94	19	20.21
Hairdressers, manicurists	296	52	17.56
Ironers and pressers	109	9	8.25
Knitters	34	5	14.70
Labourers and unskilled workers	128	19	14.84
Matrons, housekeepers	582	76	13.06
Milliners	45	5	11.11
Nurses graduate	711	161	22.64
Nurses practical	88	25	28.40
Machine operators, boots, shoes	16	2	12.50
Other clerical (office clerks)	1,675	155	9.25
Packers, wrappers	401	97	24.19
Paper, box, bag, envelope makers	85	11	12.94
Saleswomen	2,219	453	20.41
Sewing machinists - factory	820	136	16.58
Sewers, seamstresses - not in factory	142	14	9.86
Stenographers, typists	3,604	400	11.10
Teachers school	1,237	108	8.73
Telegraph operators	23	-	-
Telephone operators	247	18	7.29
Waitresses	793	161	20.30

The highest number unemployed were, in order of numerical importance:

Domestics	471
Saleswomen	453
Stenographers	400
Graduate nurses	161
Waitresses	161
Office Clerks	155
Sewing machinists, factory	136
School teachers	108

Among this group the highest percentage of unemployed was among graduate nurses, being over 22%; saleswomen and waitresses, over 20%; and sewing machinists, factory, over 16%. The highest absolute per cent, irrespective of numerical importance, was among practical nurses, over 28% of whom were unemployed; second, confectionery and biscuit makers, over 25%; packers, wrappers, and labellers, over 24%.

Certain similarities and differences in employment as between men and women become more clearly marked in periods of economic depression. After the extent of women's unemployment has been indicated for a particular place and period, certain facts stand out for our consideration. There is, for example, much insecurity of occupation not reflected in unemployment rates. As general unemployment rises, displacement occurs from the more to the less skilled types of work.

Among women, special significance must be given to personal service occupations. Trends in this group are dominated by the domestic servant which is numerically the largest. As has been stated, the domestic and personal service group was the only general division of occupations that showed an increase in the number of women employed as recorded from 1921 - 1931, after a decline had taken place in the previous decade. This is significant. The years following the World War marked the great rise of unemployment among women, but it was disguised in



various ways. A tribute should be paid here to the marvellous adaptability of woman labour. Displaced from the factory and many more or less skilled types of work into which women had entered as their contribution during the war years, they re-entered, in large numbers, the field of domestic and personal service. Also, of course, in the general prosperity preceding 1929, fewer women were driven by economic necessity to seek employment. But all through the depression, up to and including the present time, the number seeking employment in domestic and personal service has increased. But even here the opportunities have decreased in two ways; first, fewer households can afford servants; and second, many electrical labour saving devices have been introduced so that many homes able to afford help either do without or have only partial service. In Winnipeg in 1936 there were 4,606 domestics, 10% of whom were unemployed, a high rate in this category which has long been considered among women as the last resort of the workless.

It is commonly recognized that women have won a position of importance in professional service occupations, especially teaching and nursing. It is estimated that only about one-half of displaced professional workers are listed as unemployed. Similarly, a skilled worker may be recorded as employed whether or not he is able to find work in his customary line. With regard to women, special factors enter, accentuated in periods of depression but always present, which may work in three ways:

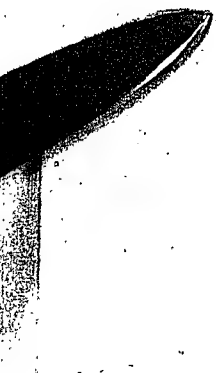
1. Certain industries under economic stress find in women a cheap form of labour which they substitute for men.

2. There is renewed focus on the position of women as gainful workers, and women, more especially married women, suffer a singling out for public criticism and even loss of jobs.
3. There is more intensive competition between men and women in fields ordinarily left to women.

Governments have attempted to prevent the first condition by minimum wages for women. This was so successful that in Quebec the Minimum Wage Act had to be amended in 1934 to prevent the replacement of female workers by males at a lesser wage. The second condition exists to a considerable extent in Manitoba. In Chapter 4 of this report dealing with trends of women workers, we find a decline among women in favour of men in certain occupations. Rules have been passed restricting the employment of married women by school boards, department stores and in civic offices. Besides all this, competition occurs in periods of depression in certain occupations normally left largely to women; e.g., there are now more male teachers and more young men stenographers and secretaries. These movements within occupations, as between the sexes, prove conclusively that the driving force is the economic necessity of the worker, which is taken advantage of indiscriminately by the unscrupulous employer; and hence any sex antagonism as between workers is a heavy detriment to both.

PART-TIME WORK AND INDUSTRIAL HOMEWORK

Part-time work and industrial homework can properly be considered under unemployment because they are a phase of that problem. The highest average number of weeks employed per year was in 1921 in Manitoba, 48.18 weeks, declining to 45.70 weeks in 1931. In Winnipeg, 1936, we find the following:



<u>OCCUPATION</u>	<u>AVERAGE NUMBER OF WEEKS WORKED</u>	<u>WEEKLY EARNINGS PER WEEK WORKED</u>
Waitresses	36.87	\$ 8.10
Domestic Servants	39.80	4.09
Practical Nurses	36.65	8.33
Ironers and pressers	41.72	9.98
Knitters	36.48	10.30

All these are important woman-employing occupations, and in each the average pay is below the minimum wage. When these earnings are spread over 52 weeks in the year they become very small.

The chief reason given for part-time work is that it is seasonal. This again leads to overtime in rush seasons. Waiting time (called standing in without pay) is also a hardship. Temporary workers brought in for the rush season develop the "helper system" where the regular worker "employs" a helper. This is a fruitful field for exploitation even where minimum regulations supposedly exist. Here the manner in which unemployment relief acts as a subsidy to industry is clearly shown in its maintenance of the available supply of part-time workers.

INDUSTRIAL HOMEWORK

Apparently the modern practice of industrial homework can be traced to the domestic system of industrial development prevalent in the Middle Ages. Its persistence in spite of its well known evils may conceivably be attributed to the fact that no real economic provision is made in our wage systems for the family as a unit. At least it is well known that in Quebec among the French Canadian population, where the family life is very deeply entrenched, industrial homework is persistent and widespread.

The significant term "sweating" is commonly applied to home workers. The firms who employ home workers sometimes employ them



directly, sometimes through other women. Cases are cited in the Price Spreads Report of a man and woman in Toronto earning 3¢ an hour each, doing tags; women earning 6¢ and 7¢ an hour smocking children's dresses. Similar cases are cited for Montreal. The system of homework is most general in Quebec, but to what extent these conditions exist in Manitoba only field work could ascertain, and information is difficult to obtain, as workers dread losing their small earnings.

Women who are socially conscious have been calling attention to the fact that when the worker in the sweated trades is thrown prematurely exhausted upon the rubbish heap of charity, the cost to the community, even in dollars and cents, is greater than the "savings" on department store bargains. Only when governments are assisted by enlightened public opinion can "sweating" be abolished. We cannot maintain a high standard of living and a high degree of efficiency in our industrial life if our workers are passively resisting an exploitation they feel, but can do nothing to combat.

The textile industry, the worst offender as regards sweating, has recently been the subject of an enquiry. The following appears relevant. The report of the Royal Commission on the Textile Industry, 1938, by W. F. A. Turgeon, Commissioner, in dealing with the responsibilities of protected industries, stated that: "It is worth while considering, I think, whether manufacturing firms, enjoying a beneficial position under the Customs Tariff at the expense of the public, should not subject themselves to the possibility of seeing their privileges withdrawn, not only if they act unfairly in the fixing of their selling prices, but if they fail in any other material respect in the discharge of their duties".



THE UNEMPLOYABLES AND SOCIAL SERVICE

The increasing number of so-called unemployables is becoming a very important factor in dealing with any phase of the unemployment situation.

The following table shows that the older women bear the brunt of unemployment:

Percentage of Fully Employable Females Classified
According to Age, in Receipt of Material Aid to
which the Dominion Contributed

<u>MANITOBA</u>	<u>1937</u>	<u>1936</u>
	<u>%</u>	<u>%</u>
16 - 25 years	33.6	41.9
26 - 45 "	40.9	38.5
46 - 65 "	24.7	18.9
66 yrs. and over	.6	.7
Unspecified	.2	-
Total	100	100

According to the census there was in the western provinces, among women wage-earners in the upper age groups whether on relief or not on relief, a higher percentage not at work on June 1, 1936, than for all ages combined. This would not necessarily indicate unemployability, but it would indicate greater difficulty for the older women to obtain work.

But the failure of the young to find a place in industry is probably an even more serious matter. The isolation by the Census Bureau of the 14 - 24 age group indicates the large number of young people, male and female, who have found no place in industry between 1931 and 1936.

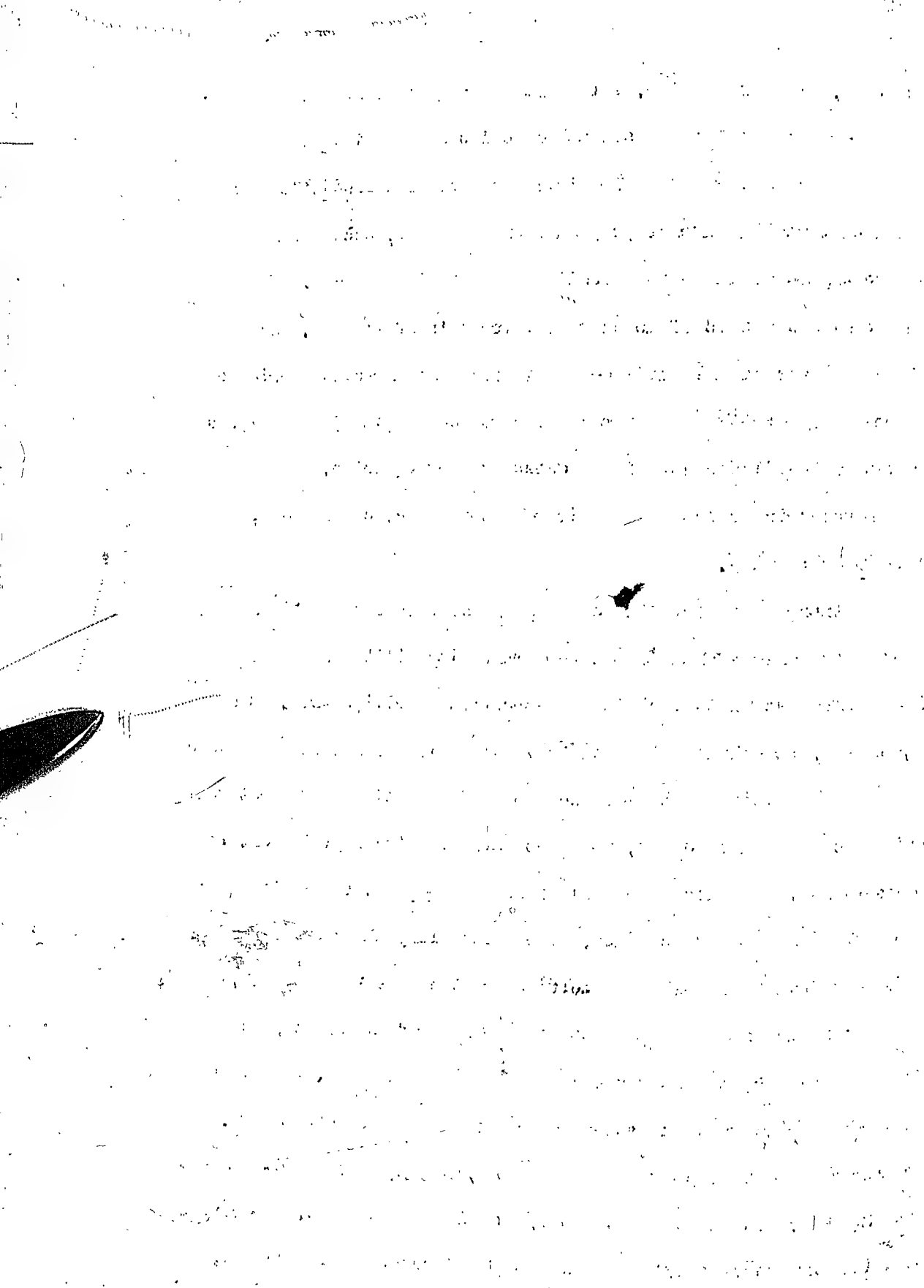
Women are the most important buyers of consumable goods and are beginning to give consumption economics more serious thought. What



adjustments, they are asking, will have to be made to stabilize demand? How are these workless consumers to be re-instated in industry?

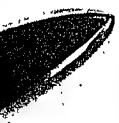
If we had an occupational clinic with detailed case histories for both employed and unemployed, embracing medical, occupational and social tests, we would be in a position to classify workers. We could formulate some standard of measure of a worker's efficiency. As a basis for any vocational guidance and training and re-conditioning of the older groups (both of particular importance to woman) an analysis by experts of available jobs is a necessary prerequisite. This is an important economic aspect of unemployment where much can be done, provincially and locally.

When there is so much to be done, and so very little being done, one sometimes wonders whether the term "unemployability" should not be shifted upwards so as to include the so-called intelligentsia. Should they, perhaps, be asked to take stock of themselves and determine wherein they have failed to give direction and aid to their weaker brethren? Treating unemployment, per se, as a root evil is like applying external remedies to heal a bodily sore while ignoring the underlying ailment of the body which is the basic cause. The production, distribution and consumption of material supply and **service** are the world's housework. In fact the Greek words from which the word "economic" is derived, mean "care of the house", or the "science of managing the home". Hence it becomes apparent how vitally economics concern women as well as men. We are concerned in this report only with the wastage and social degradation of unemployment. It is today possible, as well as desirable, to provide freedom from drudgery to all who are capable of constructive thought,



and to give some degree of leisure to all, for the development of the arts and all the enabling things of which human nature is capable.

In the words of the late King George V, broadcast on the 12th of June 1933 - "It cannot be beyond the power of man so to use the vast resources of the world as to ensure the material progress of civilization ---".



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APPENDIX A.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF PERSONS GAINFULLY EMPLOYED, CLASSIFIED BY
INDUSTRY AND SEX, CANADA, 1881 - 1921.

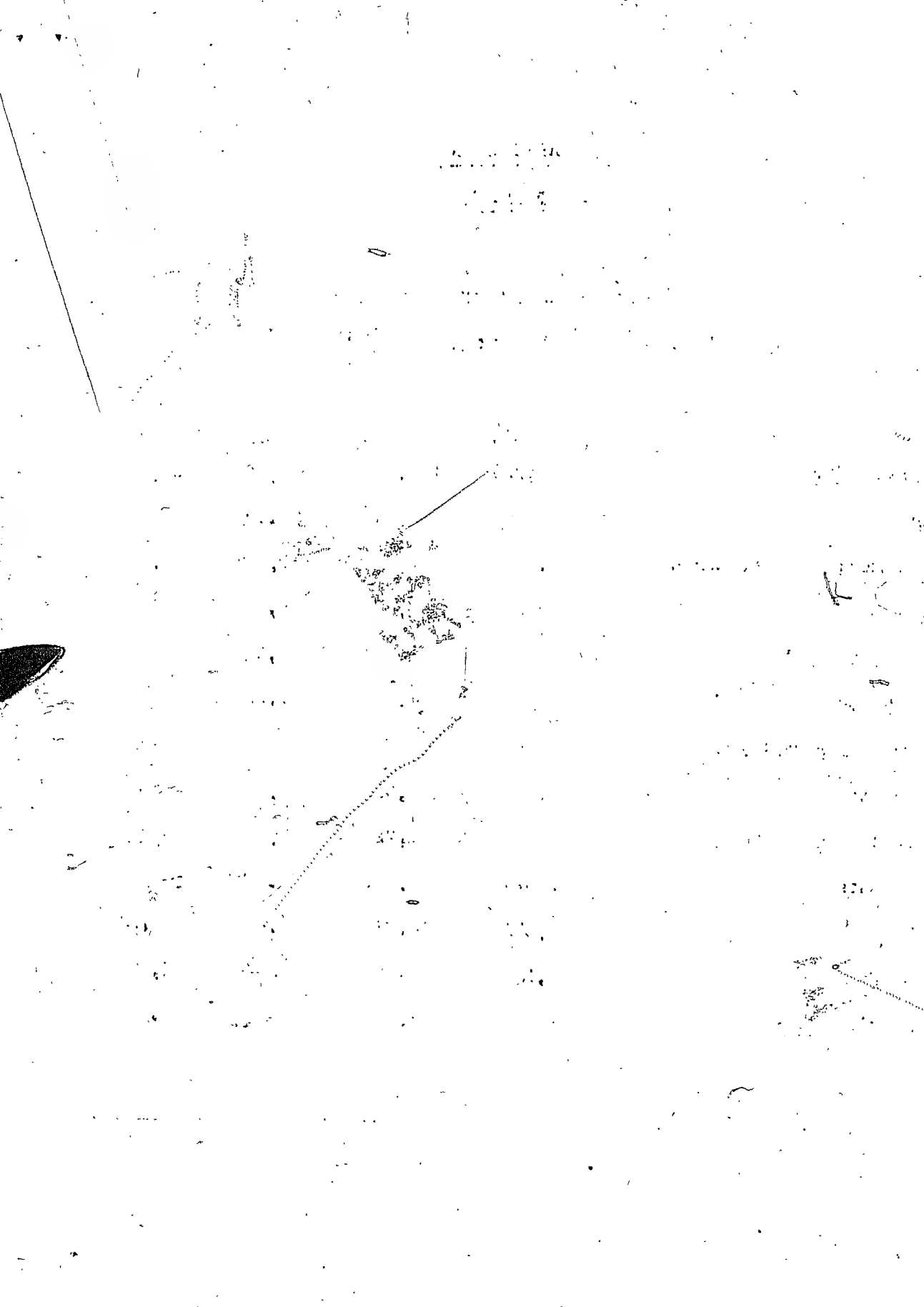
	<u>1881</u>	<u>1891</u>		<u>1901</u>		<u>1911</u>		<u>1921</u>	
	<u>BOTH SEXES</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>
Agriculture	662,266	723,013	12,194	707,924	8,936	917,848	15,887	1,023,706	17,912
Building Trades	230,873	185,599	-	213,264	43	245,990	211	284,052	627
Domestic and Personal Service	78,184	38,275	91,415	52,473	101,475	75,133	137,005	77,783	134,632
Civil and Municipal Government	7,938	17,500	767	16,414	892	72,531	4,073	81,959	12,582
Fishing and Hunting	28,500	29,841	204	27,197	28	34,547	265	29,241	51
Forestry	8,116	12,812	-	16,764	-	42,901	13	39,808	7
Manufacturing	173,436	174,829	62,490	213,956	69,941	392,781	100,435	449,348	106,410
Mining	7,160	16,124	3	28,646	4	62,706	61	50,860	203
Miscellaneous	13,005	-	-	451	39	-	-	-	-
Professional	48,461	42,572	20,051	44,899	38,320	62,781	57,835	103,479	118,670
Trade and Merchandising	78,905	101,714	7,918	143,248	17,162	240,903	42,184	295,836	77,911
Transportation	40,741	68,100	948	79,647	1,169	210,692	6,852	246,947	21,145
Total Employed	1,377,585	1,410,379	195,990	1,544,883	237,949	2,358,813	364,821	2,683,019	490,150
Population - 10 years of Age and over	3,162,122	1,841,005	1,770,877	2,082,153	1,981,790	2,965,645	2,548,743	3,461,238	3,209,998
Percentage Employed	43.56	76.61	11.07	74.19	12.01	79.54	14.31	77.52	15.27

APPENDIX A.

Table 2.

OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN 10 YEARS AND OVER
IN 10 HIGHEST GROUPS FOR CANADA, BY DECADES 1891-1921

<u>OCCUPATION</u>	<u>1891</u>	<u>1901</u>	<u>1911</u>	<u>1921</u>
All occupations	195,990	237,949	364,821	490,150
Servants	79,473	81,493	98,128	88,825
Dressmakers & Seamstresses	32,925	32,065	29,567	17,933
Teachers	14,803	30,863	34,063	49,795
Farmers, general	11,638	8,421	15,094	15,785
Tailoresses	7,834	8,362	7,578	2,665
Wholesale & Retail Proprietors, Managers, Superintendents	7,829	9,023	4,069	7,142
Wholesale & Retail - Saleswomen	-	2,729	24,321	36,189
Laundresses	3,679	2,794	8,267	8,995
Milliners	3,277	4,360	10,016	3,628
Cotton Mills	3,156	2,345	4,959	6,589
Art, Music and Drama	2,835	3,127	4,653	6,314



APPENDIX A.

Table 3.

NUMERICAL DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFULLY OCCUPIED BY OCCUPATION AND SEX

MANITOBA 1931 and 1936

<u>OCCUPATION</u>	<u>1 9 3 1</u>		<u>1 9 3 6</u>		<u>INCREASE OR DECREASE</u>
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	
(1) Domestic Servants	397	10,529	289	12,061	+
(2) Stenographers and Typists	404	5,626	255	4,640	-
(3) Teachers - School	1,256	4,288	1,467	4,020	-
(4) Salesmen and Saleswomen	6,490	3,258	4,277	3,366	-
(5) Textile goods & Wearing Apparel	1,095	1,971	1,172	2,051	+
(6) Other Clerical	6,960	1,741	7,563	2,189	+
(7) Housekeepers, matrons, stewards	59	1,659	76	2,337	+
(8) Lodging & Boarding House-Keepers	154	1,555	196	1,259	-
(9) Farmers and Stock- raisers	47,371	1,493	50,763	1,465	-
(10) Bookkeepers and Cashiers	2,401	1,478	1,355	1,035	-
(11a) Nurses Graduate	-	1,345	-	1,546	+
(11b) Nurses in Training	-	941	-	898	-
(12) Waiters and Wait- resses	999	1,328	934	1,337	+
(13) Telephone Operators	48	762	24	675	-
(14a) Dressmakers	-	663	-	491	-
(14b) " Apprentices	-	36	-	7	-
(15) Sewers, Sewing Machin- ists - Shop, Factory	67	647	137	894	+
(16) Packers, Labellers & Wrappers	404	566	347	526	-
(17a) Barbers, Hairdressors & Manicurists	987	466	997	672	+
(17b) Barbers, Hairdressors' Apprentices	7	31	-	24	-
(18) Cooks	1,190	430	967	526	+
(19) Sewers, seamstresses (not in factory)	16	311	23	315	+

TOTAL - 10,305 41,124 70,842 42,332

Increase for females in 10 occupations. Decrease in 12 occupations.

Note: Occupations listed in order of their importance to women as in 1931.
Only occupations having approximately 500 and over are included.

APPENDIX A.

Table 4.

NUMERICAL DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFULLY OCCUPIED BY SEX IN THE MOST
IMPORTANT OCCUPATIONS FOR WOMEN - WINNIPEG 1931 & 1936

<u>OCCUPATION</u>	<u>1 9 3 1</u>		<u>1 9 3 6</u>		<u>FEMALE INCREASE or DECREASE</u>
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	
1. Domestic Servant	221	4,782	154	4,670	-
2. Stenographers and Typists	304	4,363	178	3,630	-
3. Teachers - School	356	1,439	378	1,349	-
4. Salesmen & Saleswomen	3,982	2,245	2,361	2,294	+
5. Textile Goods & Wearing Apparel	888	1,493	979	1,624	+
6. Other Clerical	4,509	1,268	5,149	1,688	+
7. House-keepers, Matrons, Stewards	32	524	38	708	+
8. Lodging & Boarding-House Keepers	118	1,277	145	1,063	-
9. Farmers and Stock- raisers	166	3	205	-	-
10. Bookkeepers and Cashiers	1,830	1,161	898	742	-
11a. Nurses - Graduate	-	735	-	835	+
11b. Nurses in Training	-	476	-	460	-
12. Waiters and Waitresses	626	879	611	808	-
13. Telephone Operators	30	301	12	248	-
14a. Dressmakers	-	438	-	343	-
14b. " Apprentices	-	31	-	7	-
15. Sewers, Sewing machinists, shop, factory	56	587	132	821	+
16. Packers, Labellers, Wrappers	262	410	231	401	-
17a. Barbers, Hairdressors, Manicurists	464	314	494	441	+
17b. Barbers, Hairdressors' Apprentices	6	20	-	13	-
18. Cooks	733	187	623	260	+
19. Sewers, Seamstresses (not in Factory)	16	191	23	177	-
TOTAL	14,599	23,124	12,611	22,582	

Increase in 8 occupations for females.

Decrease in 14 occupations for females.



APPENDIX A.

Table 5.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN
GAINFUL OCCUPATIONS, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO INDUSTRIES & PROVINCES
1911

	British Colum- bia	Alber- ta	Sask- atch- ewan	Mani- toba	Ont- ario	New Que- bec	Brins- wick	Nova Scotia	Prince Edward Island
All Industries	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Agriculture	2.4	10.4	12.1	4.1	3.7	3.0	5.5	6.3	14.7
Building Trades	.1	.1	-	.1	.1	-	.1	-	.1
Domestic & Personal Service	42.0	46.0	53.6	44.9	33.8	37.1	40.3	46.0	39.5
Civil & Municipal Government	1.1	1.9	1.8	.9	1.4	.6	1.0	.9	.7
Fishing & Hunting	.4	-	.2	-	.1	-	-	.1	.4
Forestry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Manufacturing	19.6	8.7	5.7	12.7	30.7	33.5	23.8	18.6	18.9
Mining	.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	.1	-
Professional	19.5	20.7	18.0	19.4	14.5	15.2	18.1	16.6	16.6
Trade & Merchandising	12.2	10.4	7.4	14.0	13.8	9.0	10.0	10.0	8.6
Transportation	2.6	1.8	1.2	3.9	1.9	1.6	1.2	1.4	.5

APPENDIX A.

TABLE 6.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFULLY OCCUPIED, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING
TO SEX IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP FOR CANADA, 1921 and 1931.

<u>OCCUPATION GROUP:</u>	<u>1 9 2 1</u>			<u>1 9 3 1</u>			Female Increase or Decrease
	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	
All occupations	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	
Agriculture	32.82	38.15	5.65	28.82	33.97	3.62	-
Fishing, Logging	2.14	2.53	0.01	2.34	2.80	0.07	-
Mining, Quarrying	1.52	1.79	0.01	1.49	1.80	*	-
Manufacturing	12.83	11.83	18.32	12.10	11.97	12.71	-
Construction	5.11	6.05	0.02	5.17	6.22	0.01	-
Transportation and Communication	6.34	6.93	3.07	7.67	8.45	3.82	+
Trade	8.39	8.15	9.67	7.99	7.97	8.13	-
Finance, Insurance	0.85	1.00	0.06	0.94	1.11	0.09	+
Service	13.26	7.23	46.27	16.17	8.82	52.18	+
Professional Service	5.38	2.91	18.92	6.07	3.70	17.69	-
Personal Service	6.50	2.73	27.14	9.09	3.93	34.37	+
Clerical	6.87	4.75	18.49	6.14	3.81	17.53	-
Laborers	9.63	11.38	0.09	11.13	13.04	1.76	+

* Less than $\frac{1}{100}$ of 1%.

APPENDIX A:

Table 7.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFULLY OCCUPIED CLASSIFIED
ACCORDING TO SEX IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP FOR MANITOBA,
1921 - 1931

OCCUPATION GROUP	1921			1931		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Occupations	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Agriculture	40.11	46.30	4.01	34.52	40.56	4.15
Fishing, Logging	0.53	0.39	0.01	1.68	1.99	0.12
Mining, Quarrying	0.14	0.17	-	0.56	0.67	-
Manufacturing	7.60	7.58	7.70	8.24	8.64	6.26
Construction	4.51	5.28	-	4.70	5.63	-
Transportation	7.26	7.95	3.19	7.76	8.62	3.43
Trade	9.59	9.17	12.05	8.06	7.99	8.41
Finance, Insurance	1.20	1.39	0.09	0.96	1.13	0.08
Service	13.60	7.58	48.71	16.62	8.70	56.47
Professional Service	5.31	2.92	19.23	5.86	3.55	17.45
Personal Service	6.69	2.84	29.18	9.62	3.81	38.79
Clerical	8.53	5.88	23.99	7.01	4.34	20.40
Laborers	6.98	8.17	0.05	9.85	11.68	0.61

APPENDIX A:

Table 8.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GAINFULLY OCCUPIED, CLASSIFIED
ACCORDING TO SEX IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP FOR WINNIPEG
1921 - 1951

<u>OCCUPATION GROUP</u>	<u>1 9 2 1</u>			<u>1 9 3 1</u>		
	<u>Total</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
All Occupations	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Agriculture	1.51	1.96	0.02	2.10	2.81	0.10
Fishing, Logging	0.10	0.13	-	0.16	0.21	-
Mining, Quarrying	0.09	0.12	-	0.25	0.33	-
Manufacturing	13.81	14.85	10.40	14.06	16.00	8.54
Construction	7.10	9.28	-	7.25	9.80	-
Transportation	11.74	14.35	3.21	10.70	13.32	3.27
Trade	16.87	17.50	14.80	13.15	14.19	10.19
Finance, Insurance	2.35	3.03	0.12	1.80	2.39	0.13
Service	19.17	13.42	37.94	24.00	15.23	48.94
Professional Service	7.24	4.97	14.66	8.02	6.11	13.48
Personal Service	9.65	5.56	23.02	14.25	6.90	35.17
Clerical	17.63	12.82	33.32	14.16	9.31	27.96
Laborers	9.38	12.25	-	12.26	16.29	0.79



APPENDIX A.

TABLE 9.

NUMBER AND PER CENT GAINFULLY OCCUPIED, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX,
IN EACH OCCUPATION GROUP FOR MINNAPOLI, 1931 and 1936.

OCCUPATION GROUP	1931			1936		
	MALE		FEMALE	MALE		FEMALE
	NUMBER	PER CENT		NUMBER	PER CENT	
All Occupations	225,573	100.00	42,893	224,375	100.00	45,815
Agriculture	91,388	40.51	1,861	99,815	44.55	1,823
Fishing, Hunting, Trapping	3,952	1.75	52	4,481	2.00	73
Logging	545	0.24	-	1,448	0.65	-
Mining, Quarrying	1,513	0.67	-	2,221	0.99	-
Manufacturing	19,505	8.65	2,811	20,390	9.10	2,878
Building and Construction	12,710	5.63	-	10,448	4.66	2
Transportation and Communication	19,452	8.62	1,540	19,957	8.91	1,371
Railway Transportation	8,178	3.63	1	7,747	3.46	3
Water Transportation	346	0.15	3	212	0.09	2
Road Transportation	5,652	2.51	4	6,951	3.10	-
Trade	18,033	7.99	3,775	18,257	8.15	3,862
Finance, Insurance	2,553	1.13	38	2,200	0.98	30
Service	18,177	8.06	25,284	18,046	8.05	27,451
Professional Service	6,561	2.91	7,773	6,414	2.86	7,783
Personal Service	8,609	3.82	17,410	8,592	3.83	19,543
Clerical	11,257	4.99	9,225	10,590	4.77	8,148
Laborers and Unskilled workmen	26,378	11.69	276	16,006	7.14	158
						0.34

APPENDIX A.

TABLE 10

POPULATIONS AND GAINFULLY OCCUPIED BY SEX FOR CANADA, MANITOBA AND WINNIPEG
FROM 1891 to 1936, SHOWING RELATIVE INCREASES WHERE COMPARABLE.

YEAR	CANADA				MANITOBA				WINNIPEG			
	Population		Gainfully Occupied		Population		Gainfully Occupied		Population		Gainfully Occupied	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE & FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	
1891	2,460,471	2,372,768			84,342	68,164			42,340			
1901	2,751,708	2,619,607			138,504	116,707						
% Increase												
1911	3,821,067	3,383,771	2,358,813	364,821	252,954	208,440	155,900	22,206	74,406	61,629	50,901	11,364
% Increase		29.17		53.31		76.13						
1921	4,529,945	4,258,538	2,683,019	490,150	320,567	289,551	184,961	31,682	89,737	89,350	56,701	17,366
% Increase		25.85		34.35		40.86		42.67		44.98		52.82
1931	5,374,541	5,002,245	3,261,371	665,859	368,065	332,074	225,764	44,908	109,742	109,043	71,644	25,201
% Increase		17.46		35.85		14.69		41.75		22.04		45.12
1936	(Male and Female estimate)				368,580	342,636	224,057	45,814	105,730	110,084	65,910	24,270
		11,028,000										
% Increase					.31		.20		.09		.03	

APPENDIX B

TABLE 11

PER CENT OF WAGE-EARNERS, CLASSIFIED AS TO SEX,
IN EACH AGE GROUP FOR CANADA AND
MANITOBA, 1951

Age Group	<u>CANADA</u>		<u>MANITOBA</u>	
	<u>All Occupations</u>		<u>All Occupations</u>	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
10-15 years	0.61	1.56	0.43	0.88
16-17 "	3.08	7.50	2.68	6.78
18-19 "	5.33	14.02	5.23	14.98
20-24 "	15.27	32.10	15.21	55.82
25-34 "	26.77	24.56	25.73	23.72
35-44 "	21.71	10.73	22.49	9.76
45-54 "	16.19	6.07	18.06	5.55
55-64 "	8.03	2.82	7.73	1.93
65-69 "	1.92	0.66	1.66	0.37
70 years and over	1.10	0.36	0.75	0.15

APPENDIX B.

TABLE 12.

WAGE-EARNERS, CLASSIFIED BY SEX, SHOWING TOTAL AND AVERAGE EARNINGS AND TOTAL AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF WEEKS EMPLOYED DURING THE 12 MONTHS PRIOR TO THE DATE OF THE CENSUS, JUNE 1st, FOR CANADA AND PROVINCE OF MANITOBA. 1911 - 31.

	Total Wage-Earners		Number Reporting Earnings		Total Earnings		Total Weeks Employed		Average Earnings		Average Number of weeks employed		Average Earnings per week employed	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE \$	FEMALE \$	MALE	FEMALE	MALE \$	FEMALE \$	MALE	FEMALE	MALE \$	FEMALE \$
<u>CANADA</u>														
1911	1,328,330	299,943	1,124,383	243,174	666,470,400	76,142,200	45,545,260	10,061,903	593	313	41.40	41.38	14.32	7.57
1921	1,545,894	426,195	1,459,127	394,279	1,542,178,200	225,853,200	67,779,756	19,030,587	1,057	573	46.45	48.27	22.75	11.87
1931	2,022,260	547,837	1,947,957	528,457	1,804,942,500	295,610,200	80,003,048	24,621,374	927	559	41.07	46.59	22.56	12.01
<u>MANITOBA</u>														
1911	91,427	19,095	70,239	14,722	49,619,700	5,863,900	2,927,246	605,068	706	398	41.68	41.10	16.95	9.69
1921	99,756	28,341	94,476	26,673	109,772,800	18,489,200	4,451,002	1,285,088	1,162	693	47.11	48.18	24.66	14.39
1931	132,883	37,856	128,382	36,565	119,261,100	20,423,200	5,166,381	1,671,062	929	559	40.24	45.70	23.08	12.22

APPENDIX B

TABLE 13

CHANGES IN THE COST OF LIVING IN CANADA, 1913-1937 (1)

(Average prices in 1913 equal 100)

	FOOD	FUEL AND LIGHT	RENT	CLOTHING	SUNDRIES	ALL ITEMS
1914	108	98	97	103	100	103
1915	111	96	94	115	110	107
1916	138	109	95	136	122	124
1917	167	125	102	158	134	143
1918	186	146	111	135	151	162
1919	201	148	122	210	164	176
1920	202	200	142	252	173	190
1921	150	172	150	177	172	161
1922	142	177	155	162	174	157
1923	146	172	158	154	171	159
1924	144	162	158	159	169	156
1925	157	166	158	159	166	160
1926	152	162	156	157	166	157
1927	152	158	156	155	166	157
1928	154	157	157	157	166	158
1929	161	157	158	156	166	160
1930	158	156	160	148	165	151
1931	107	152	158	127	163	135
1932	96	145	141	114	161	125
1933	100	142	129	113	157	123
1934	103	144	129	115	154	123
1935	111	141	131	115	154	127
1936	114	142	155	115	154	128
1937	120	140	142	118	157	133

(1) The figures for "all items" were calculated by giving the following weights to each group: Food, 35%; fuel, 8%; Rent, 18½%; Clothing, 18½%; Sundries, 20%. Figures are for month of December in each year.

APPENDIX B.

TABLE 14

PER CENT OF FACT-FARMERS, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX, IN
EACH AGE GROUP. WINNIPEG, 1911, 1921 and 1931.

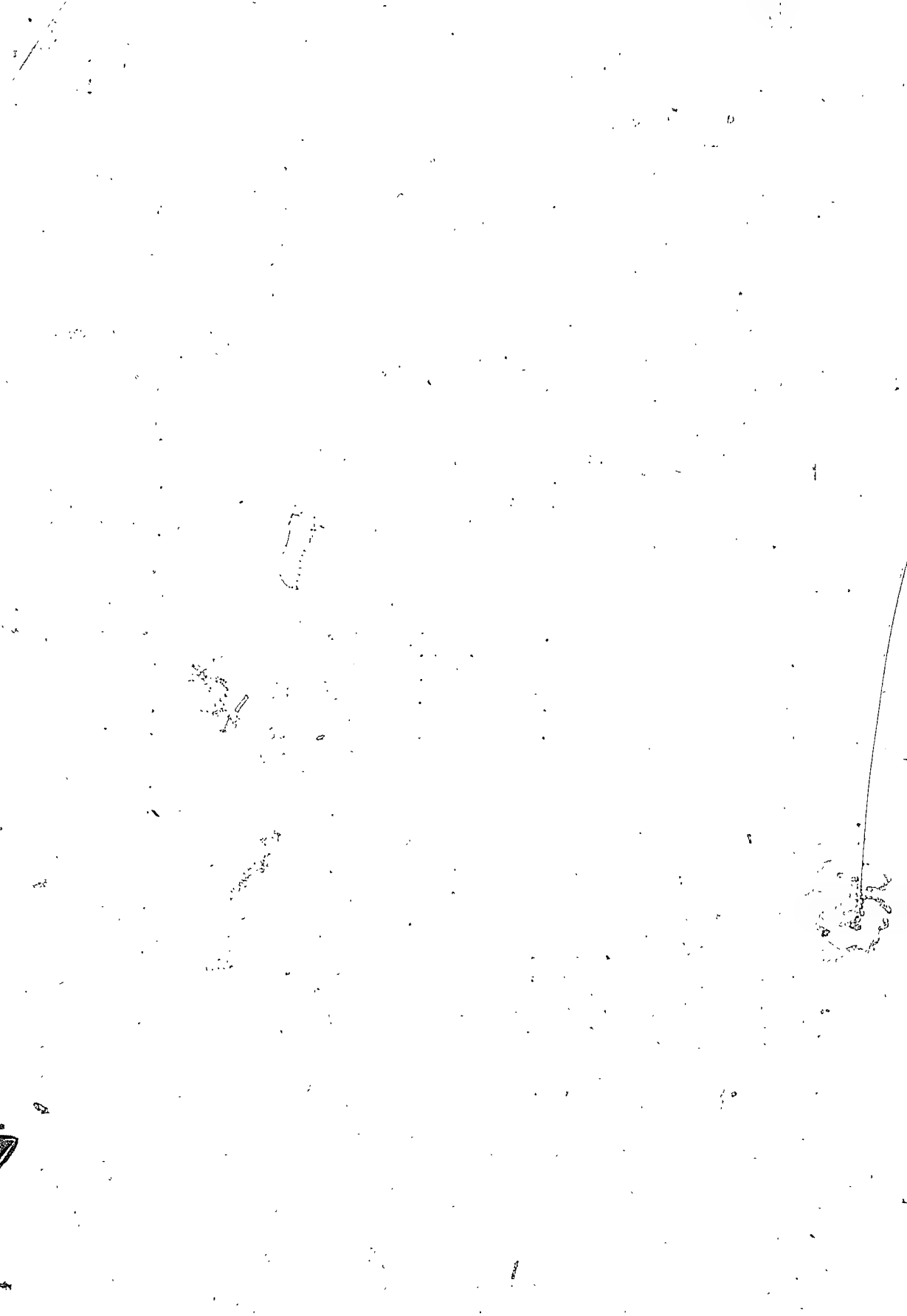
<u>1911</u>			<u>1921</u>			<u>1931</u>		
AGE GROUP	MALE	FEMALE	AGE GROUP	MALE	FEMALE	AGE GROUP	MALE	FEMALE
All Ages	100.00	100.00	All Ages	100.00	100.00	All Ages	100.00	100.00
15 - 24 Years	27.99	59.81	10 - 14 Years	0.27	0.24	10 - 15 Years	0.19	0.43
25 - 34 "	71.01	39.36	15 - 19 "	8.34	24.89	16 - 17 "	2.03	5.29
35 + "	0.82	0.24	20 - 24 "	11.05	28.89	18 - 19 "	4.13	14.21
Not Given	0.18	0.29	25 - 49 "	66.70	42.68	20 - 24 "	13.30	35.46
			50 - 54 "	11.94	2.99	25 - 34 "	25.29	25.06
			65 + over	1.70	0.19	35 - 44 "	23.85	11.06
						45 - 54 "	20.10	6.20
						55 - 64 "	8.63	1.92
						65 - 69 "	1.73	0.32
						70 + over	0.75	0.12

APPENDIX B.

TABLE 15

WAGE-EARNERS BY AGE AND SEX, SHOWING AVERAGE EARNINGS AND AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED FOR CANADA, 1911, 1921 and 1931.

YEAR AND AGE GROUP	TOTAL WAGE-EARNERS		AVERAGE EARNINGS		AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
			\$	\$	\$	\$
1911	1,124,383	243,174	593	313	14.32	7.57
15 - 24 Years	342,699	142,739	448	292	10.98	7.06
25 - 64 "	753,278	97,743	661	346	15.84	8.35
65 Years and Over	25,943	2,263	515	233	13.16	5.74
Not Given	2,463	429	537	325	13.27	7.89
1921	1,459,127	394,279	1057	573	22.75	11.87
10 - 14 Years	8,653	4,408	286	223	6.27	4.96
15 - 19 "	161,034	105,679	561	426	12.26	9.07
20 - 24 "	207,649	114,227	846	622	18.35	12.78
25 - 49 "	846,728	145,374	1195	668	25.51	13.66
50 - 64 "	189,820	20,041	1170	506	25.38	10.38
65 Years and over	45,243	4,550	881	340	19.67	3.93
1931	1,947,957	528,457	927	559	22.56	12.01
10 - 15 Years	11,857	7,177	194	167	4.56	3.79
16 - 17 "	59,943	39,609	288	265	7.15	6.17
18 - 19 "	103,861	71,072	405	376	10.20	8.36
20 - 24 "	297,508	169,633	613	533	15.20	11.35
25 - 34 "	521,371	128,746	900	697	21.84	14.61
35 - 44 "	422,922	53,856	1170	757	27.68	15.95
45 - 54 "	315,288	32,076	1202	697	28.95	14.75
55 - 64 "	156,325	14,912	1071	567	26.73	12.07
65 - 69 "	37,429	3,467	899	421	23.49	9.03
70 Years and Over	21,453	1,909	793	342	20.48	7.04



APPENDIX B.

TABLE 16

WAGE-EARNERS, BY AGE AND SEX, SHOWING AVERAGE EARNINGS
AND AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED FOR
MINNESOTA, 1911, 1921 and 1931.

YEAR AND AGE GROUP	TOTAL WAGE-EARNERS		AVERAGE EARNINGS		AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
1911	70,239	14,722	\$706	\$398	\$16.95	\$ 9.69
15 - 24 Years	22,021	8,914	514	368	12.55	9.03
25 - 64 "	47,440	5,710	796	447	18.93	10.71
65 Years and Over	646	52	663	313	16.82	7.37
Not Given	132	46	899	424	20.99	10.34
1921	94,476	26,673	1,162	693	24.66	14.39
10 - 14 Years	399	211	265	217	5.82	4.63
15 - 19 "	9,168	7,000	575	510	12.38	10.87
20 - 24 "	12,874	7,877	851	736	18.20	15.13
25 - 49 "	59,777	10,516	1,299	803	27.38	16.50
50 - 64 "	10,486	940	1,336	622	28.67	12.88
65 Years and over	1,772	129	1,016	340	22.09	6.75
1931	128,382	36,565	929	559	23.08	12.22
10 - 15 Years	551	322	160	111	3.77	2.60
16 - 17 "	3,439	2,479	251	197	6.36	4.82
18 - 19 "	5,720	5,477	360	322	9.13	7.45
20 - 24 " X	19,526	13,096	550	509	13.90	11.09
25 - 34 "	33,033	8,673	818	722	20.99	15.27
35 - 44 "	28,878	3,569	1,172	846	28.19	17.83
45 - 54 "	23,184	2,031	1,296	812	31.00	17.17
55 - 64 "	9,923	728	1,150	625	28.93	13.39
65 - 69 "	2,163	134	904	492	24.13	11.15
70 Years and over	965	56	921	336	23.59	7.11

APPENDIX B

TABLE 17

WAGE-EARNERS, BY AGE AND SEX, SHOWING AVERAGE EARNINGS AND AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED

(For Winnipeg, 1911, 1921 and 1931)

Year and Age Group	Total Wage- Earnings		Average Earnings		Average Earnings Per Week Employed	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
<u>1911</u>	<u>35,430</u>	<u>8,253</u>	<u>856</u>	<u>445</u>	<u>20.05</u>	<u>10.53</u>
15-24 years	9,918	4,936	641	405	15.22	9.64
25-64 "	25,159	3,275	939	506	21.85	11.83
65 years and over	290	20	849	430	21.03	11.12
Not given	63	24	1,375	508	30.94	11.74
<u>1921</u>	<u>46,223</u>	<u>15,706</u>	<u>1,374</u>	<u>755</u>	<u>29.55</u>	<u>15.81</u>
10-14 years	126	54	301	209	6.98	5.34
15-19 "	3,854	3,910	643	545	14.04	11.73
20-24 "	5,109	4,558	1,031	776	22.75	16.06
25-49 "	30,955	6,704	1,493	875	31.85	18.11
50-64 "	5,517	470	1,569	706	33.96	14.76
65 years and over	784	30	1,328	382	29.37	7.43
<u>1931</u>	<u>61,172</u>	<u>21,682</u>	<u>1,120</u>	<u>627</u>	<u>28.71</u>	<u>13.86</u>
10-15 years	117	94	221	159	5.71	3.98
16-17 "	1,244	1,131	324	240	8.47	6.07
18-19 "	2,524	3,081	450	360	11.83	8.55
20-24 "	8,135	7,688	388	551	18.27	11.72
25-34 "	15,472	5,433	955	777	25.95	16.55
35-44 "	14,587	2,399	1,520	942	32.58	19.98
45-54 "	12,296	1,344	1,490	929	36.05	19.88
55-64 "	5,278	416	1,563	779	34.99	16.99
65-69 "	1,059	70	1,148	603	31.37	14.64
70 years and over	460	26	1,230	481	31.70	9.97

APPENDIX B. TABLE 18 (a)

AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED FOR WAGE-EARNERS OF ALL AGES, BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS
CANADA, MANITOBA AND WINNIPEG, 1921 and 1931.

OCCUPATION	1 9 3 1						1 9 2 1					
	CANADA		MANITOBA		WINNIPEG		CANADA		MANITOBA		WINNIPEG	
	Female \$	Male \$	Female \$	Male \$	Female \$	Male \$	Female \$	Male \$	Female \$	Male \$	Female \$	Male \$
Bookbinders	13.76		12.78		12.78							
Bookkeepers, Cashiers	17.25	25.97	17.61	26.74	18.21	26.94						
Charworkers and Cleaners	8.38		8.75		9.10		7.95		9.30		10.08	
Confectionery and Biscuit Makers	10.34		11.29		11.44							
Cooks	9.52	17.63	9.33	18.41	10.32	19.25	9.43	18.21	9.78	20.44	10.19	21.96
Domestic Servants	5.38		4.52		5.48		5.82		6.24		7.83	
Dressmakers	12.09		12.03		13.29							
Furriers	13.67		12.48		12.35							
Hairdressers, Manicurists	13.70		14.29		15.04		14.58		13.46		13.09	
Ironers and pressers	10.62		10.64		10.52							
Knitters	10.91		10.98		11.04		10.83		11.73		10.83	
Laborers and Unskilled Workers	9.22	14.74	9.22	14.31	9.75	16.07						
Matrons, Housekeepers	6.81		6.00		7.76		6.99		7.63		10.14	
Milliners	13.91		15.28		16.66		12.88		15.88		16.84	
Nurses - Graduate	19.40		18.77		20.14							
Nurses - Practical	9.75		9.19		10.06							
Operatives, boots shoes	10.30	17.09		16.76			10.64		7.69			
Other clerical (Office clerks)	16.87	24.00	16.20	24.22	16.98	24.41						
Packers, wrappers	9.99		10.14		10.32							
Paper, box, bag and envelope makers	10.55		9.92		9.98							
Saleswomen	11.67	22.60	12.44	24.19	13.20	26.20	11.91	22.33	14.27	25.92	15.16	27.58
Sewing machinists (factories)	10.83		10.57		10.44							
Sewers, seamstresses, (not in factories)	10.41		10.66		12.05							
Spinners	10.24						10.30					
Stenographers, typists	17.43		17.69		18.11							
Teachers - school	18.32	31.22	21.10	29.79	27.43	42.82	16.41	27.70	22.05	29.10	25.04	40.45
Telegraph Operators	23.23	32.48	26.11	34.94	26.43	36.63	18.46	30.89	20.68	34.54	20.91	34.79
Telephone Operators	13.97		14.65		17.40		13.47		15.49		16.77	
Waitresses	8.56	16.40	7.90	16.83	8.71	17.48	9.18	15.08	9.69	15.62	9.98	16.38
Weavers	11.15	15.48					11.91		21.15			



APPENDIX B
TABLE 18 (b)

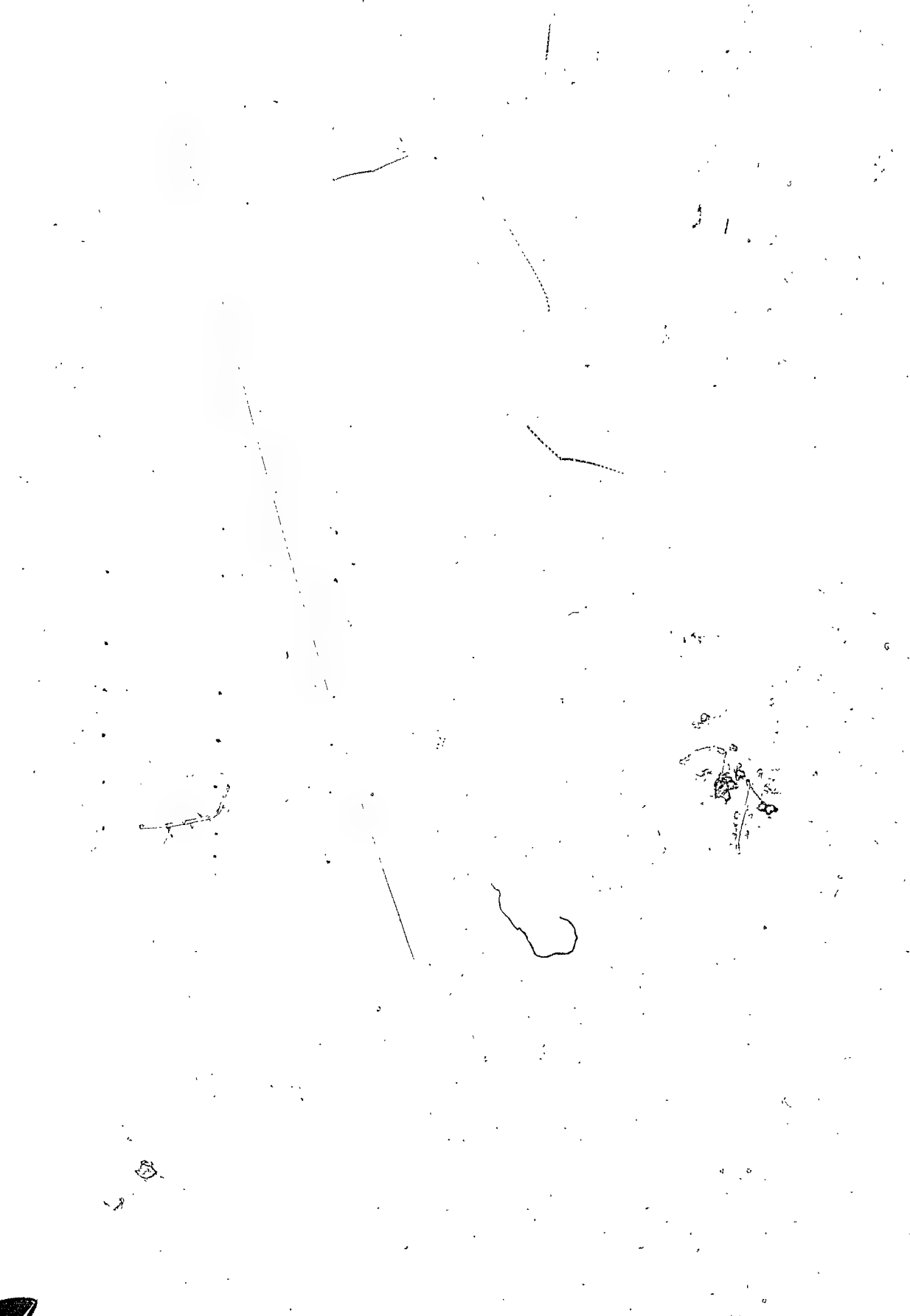
AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED FOR FEMALE WAGE-EARNERS
OF ALL AGES BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS FOR MANITOBA, 1936

Occupation	Persons	Earnings \$	Weeks Employed	Average Earnings \$	Average No. Weeks Worked	Weekly Earnings per Weeks Employed \$	Average Earnings Over 52 Weeks
Bookbinders	94	41,600	5,232	443	34.91	12.68	8.51
Bookkeepers, Cashiers	985	689,200	44,670	700	45.35	15.43	13.46
Charworkers and Cleaners	212	72,200	8,736	341	41.21	8.26	6.56
Confectionery and Biscuit makers	61	20,700	2,040	339	33.44	10.15	6.52
Cooks	445	142,300	18,328	320	41.19	7.76	6.15
Domestic Servants	11,381	1,355,000	414,277	119	36.40	3.27	2.29
Dressmakers	171	67,200	5,985	393	34.99	11.23	7.56
Furriers	109	45,000	3,609	413	33.11	12.47	7.94
Hairdressers, Manicurists	403	156,400	14,312	388	35.51	10.93	7.46
Ironers and Pressors	134	54,600	5,548	407	41.40	9.84	7.83
Knitters	34	12,700	1,234	374	36.29	10.29	7.19
Laborers and Unskilled Workers	142	48,200	4,954	539	34.75	9.77	6.52
Matrons, Housekeepers	1,700	518,400	72,868	187	42.86	4.37	3.60
Milliners	54	26,400	1,340	489	35.93	13.61	9.40
Nurses, Graduate	1,297	698,200	46,309	538	35.70	15.08	10.35
Nurses, Practical	222	57,100	8,015	257	36.10	7.12	4.94
Other Clerical, (Office Clerks)	2,104	1,475,900	95,503	701	45.39	15.45	13.48
Packers, Wrappers	509	187,600	17,854	369	35.10	10.50	7.10
Paper, box, bag and envelope makers	94	44,500	4,050	473	42.97	11.02	9.10

APPENDIX B

TABLE 18 (b) cont.

Occupation	Persons	Earnings	Weeks Employed	Average Earnings	Average No. Weeks Worked	Weekly Earnings per Week Employed	Average Earnings Over 52 Weeks
		\$		\$		\$	\$
Saleswomen	3,077	1,504,500	114,795	424	37.31	11.36	8.15
Sewing machi- nists (factories)	875	347,600	33,710	397	38.53	10.31	7.63
Sewers, seam- stresses (not in factories)	210	86,600	8,988	412	42.80	9.64	7.92
Stenographers, typists	4,563	3,124,700	201,555	684	44.12	15.50	13.15
Teachers - school	3,745	2,748,600	175,279	734	46.80	15.68	14.11
Telegraph operators	31	36,600	1,513	1,181	48.81	24.19	22.71
Telephone operators	660	384,500	29,524	585	44.75	13.02	11.21
Waitresses	1,224	327,200	45,563	267	37.08	7.21	5.13



APPENDIX B
TABLE 18 (c)

FEMALE WAGE-EARNERS BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS SHOWING
AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED FOR WINNIPEG,
1936.

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Persons</u>	<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Weeks</u> <u>Employed</u>	<u>Average</u> <u>Earnings</u>	<u>Average</u> <u>No. Weeks</u> <u>Worked</u>	<u>Weekly</u> <u>Earnings</u> <u>per Week</u> <u>Employed</u>	<u>Average</u> <u>Earnings</u> <u>Over</u> <u>52 Weeks</u>
		\$		\$		\$	\$
Bookbinders	77	32,700	2,700	425	35.06	12.11	8.17
Bookkeepers, cashiers	712	528,200	32,724	742	45.96	16.14	14.27
Charworkers and cleaners	145	52,000	6,109	359	42.13	8.51	6.90
Confectionery and biscuit makers	54	19,600	1,864	363	34.52	10.52	6.98
Cooks	243	78,300	9,757	322	40.15	8.03	6.19
Domestic servants	4,442	722,400	176,777	163	39.80	4.09	3.13
Dressmakers	132	58,900	4,838	446	36.65	12.17	8.57
Furriers	94	38,300	3,082	407	32.79	12.43	7.83
Hairdressers, manicurists	291	121,000	10,522	416	36.16	11.50	8.00
Ironers and pressers	104	43,300	4,339	416	41.72	9.98	8.00
Knitters	33	12,400	1,204	376	36.48	10.30	7.23
Laborers and un- skilled workers	117	40,300	4,114	344	35.16	9.80	6.61
Matrons, house- keepers	537	134,400	22,473	250	41.85	5.98	4.80
Milliners	44	22,900	1,637	520	37.20	13.99	10.00
Nurses graduate	698	423,000	25,597	606	36.67	16.53	11.54
Nurses practical	75	22,900	2,749	305	36.65	8.33	5.86
Operatives, boots, shoes	16	5,200	546	325	34.13	9.52	6.25
Other clerical (office clerks)	1,628	1,196,400	74,739	735	45.91	16.01	14.13
Packers, wrappers	390	148,500	13,644	381	34.98	10.88	7.33
Paper, box, bag and envelope makers	84	39,700	3,626	473	43.17	10.95	9.09
Saleswomen	2,130	973,300	79,453	457	37.30	12.25	8.79

APPENDIX B

TABLE 19

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WAGE-EARNERS BY SEX AND EARNING GROUP
FOR CANADA AND MANITOBA - 1931.

Earnings Group	C A N A D A				M A N I T O B A			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
			%	%			%	%
Total	2,022,260	547,837	100.00	100.00	132,883	37,856	100.00	100.00
None	60,520	7,157	2.99	1.31	4,998	867	3.76	2.29
\$ 1- 49	18,332	13,041	0.91	2.38	1,778	1,057	1.34	2.79
50- 449	562,608	232,968	27.82	42.53	43,157	15,835	32.48	41.83
450- 949	537,705	184,240	26.59	33.63	26,894	12,163	20.24	32.13
950-1,449	400,778	71,837	19.82	13.11	24,701	5,129	18.59	13.55
1,450-1,949	198,569	14,173	9.82	2.59	14,192	1,148	10.68	3.03
1,950-2,949	112,539	4,485	5.57	0.82	8,225	338	6.19	0.89
2,950-4,949	43,852	504	2.17	0.09	3,428	26	2.58	0.07
4,950-6,949	8,243	40	0.41	0.01	621	1	0.47	--
6,950-9,949	2,737	11	0.14	--	212	1	0.16	--
9,950 and over	2,074	1	0.10	--	176	--	0.13	--
Not Stated	74,303	19,380	3.67	3.54	4,501	1,291	3.39	3.41



APPENDIX B

TABLE 20

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF THE WAGE-EARNERS BY SEX
AND AMOUNT OF EARNINGS DURING THE CENSUS YEARS,
1931 AND 1936 FOR MANITOBA;

	MANITOBA 1931				MANITOBA 1936			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total	132,883	100.00	37,856	100.00	118,123	100.00	58,426	100.00
No Earnings	4,998	3.76	867	2.29	9,764	8.27	1,328	3.46
1- 49	1,778	1.34	1,057	2.79	5,105	4.32	5,907	10.17
50- 449	43,157	32.48	15,835	41.83	39,689	33.60	17,696	46.05
450- 949	26,894	20.24	12,165	32.13	24,483	20.73	11,661	30.35
950- 1,449	24,701	18.59	5,129	13.55	21,469	18.18	2,951	7.68
1,450- 1,949	14,192	10.68	1,148	5.03	8,908	7.54	535	1.39
1,950- 2,949	8,225	6.19	333	0.89	4,891	4.14	108	0.28
2,950- 4,949	5,428	2.58	23	0.07	1,823	1.54	12	0.03
4,950 and over	1,009	0.76	—	—	634	0.54	—	—
Not Stated	4,501	3.39	1,291	3.41	1,557	1.15	228	0.59

APPENDIX B

TABLE 21.

WAGE-EARNERS, BY INDUSTRY AND SEX SHOWING TOTAL AND AVERAGE EARNINGS
AND WEEKS EMPLOYED. MANITOBA FEMALES - 1936.

F E M A L E S

<u>Industry</u>	<u>Wage Earners</u>	<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Weeks Worked</u>	<u>A V E R A G E</u>			
				<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Weeks Worked</u>	<u>Weekly Earnings</u>	<u>Per Week Employee</u>
All Industries	37,611	15,386,500	1,504,114	408	39.99	7.85	10.23
Manufacturing	3,054	1,496,900	120,125	490	39.33	9.42	12.46
Transportation and Communication	1,217	908,300	55,379	746	45.50	14.35	16.40
Trade	6,930	3,642,800	277,583	526	40.06	10.12	13.12
Finance, Insurance Service	1,606	1,271,200	74,866	792	46.62	15.23	16.96
Education	4,042	2,918,300	187,918	722	46.49	13.88	15.53
Health	2,679	1,128,600	105,001	421	39.19	8.10	10.75
Private Domestic Service	12,256	1,404,000	447,843	115	36.54	2.21	3.13

M A L E S

All Industries	110,485	84,653,500	4,036,387	766	36.53	14.73	30.97
Manufacturing	15,536	13,298,100	591,495	856	38.07	16.46	22.48
Transportation and Communication	22,103	21,426,200	851,142	969	38.50	18.63	25.17
Trade	17,857	18,178,600	742,714	1,018	41.59	19.58	24.48
Finance, Insurance Service	3,456	5,549,000	161,332	1,606	46.68	30.88	34.59
Education	2,206	2,310,500	105,717	1,047	47.92	20.13	21.86
Health	683	670,200	31,751	981	46.49	18.87	21.11
Private Domestic	191	81,900	6,831	429	35.76	8.25	11.99

APPENDIX P.

TABLE 22

WAGE-EARNERS, BY INDUSTRY AND SEX SHOWING TOTAL AND AVERAGE EARNINGS
AND WEEKS EMPLOYED. WINNIPEG 1936.

F E M A L E S

<u>INDUSTRY</u>	<u>Wage- Earners</u>	<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Weeks Worked</u>	<u>A V E R A G E</u>			
				<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Weeks Worked</u>	<u>Weekly Earnings</u>	<u>per Week Employed</u>
All Industries	20,792	10,535,500	854,682	507	41.10	9.75	12.35
Manufacturing	2,571	1,264,300	101,279	492	39.39	9.46	12.48
Transportation and Communication	669	598,100	31,260	894	46.73	17.19	19.13
Trade	5,190	2,903,700	210,425	559	40.54	10.75	13.80
Finance, Insurance Service	1,295	1,049,800	60,599	811	46.79	15.60	17.32
Education	1,368	1,453,500	63,102	1,063	46.13	20.44	23.03
Health	1,244	602,500	49,370	484	39.69	9.31	12.20
Private Domestic Service	4,628	720,600	181,720	156	39.27	3.00	3.97

M A L E S

All Industries	52,312	50,137,200	1,931,306	958	36.92	18.42	25.95
Manufacturing	9,601	8,557,000	364,742	891	37.99	17.13	23.46
Transportation and Communication	11,668	12,141,500	445,129	1,041	38.15	20.02	27.28
Trade	11,651	12,940,800	484,393	1,111	41.58	21.38	26.72
Finance, Insurance Service	2,304	3,945,900	107,685	1,713	46.74	32.94	36.64
Education	696	1,128,700	32,471	1,622	46.65	31.19	34.76
Health	227	235,500	10,066	1,037	44.34	19.94	23.40
Private Domestic Service	120	62,500	4,492	520	37.43	10.00	13.91

APPENDIX B.

TABLE 23

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF WEEKS EMPLOYED, ALSO AVERAGE EARNINGS PER WEEK EMPLOYED BY OCCUPATION GROUP AND SEX, MANITOBA 1931 and 1936.

OCCUPATION GROUP	M A L E S					
	Average Earnings		Average Weeks Employed		Average Earnings per week employed	
	1931	1936	1931	1936	1931	1936
All Occupations	929	768	40.24	36.63	23.08	20.96
Agriculture	257	149	41.59	32.86	6.19	4.55
Fishing, hunting, trapping	306	253	41.45	27.05	7.59	9.36
Logging	376	248	32.67	24.95	11.52	9.94
Mining, quarrying	869	1,010	35.21	35.95	24.67	28.09
Manufacturing (1)	1,164	880	42.29	37.73	27.53	23.32
Building and Construction (2)	873	580	33.82	26.29	25.82	22.08
Transportation and Communication	1,173	949	43.56	39.61	26.94	23.95
Railway Transportation	1,402	1,145	43.57	40.08	32.18	28.58
Road Transportation	824	638	42.06	36.19	19.59	17.63
Trade	1,557	1,256	46.41	43.79	33.55	28.67
Finance, Insurance	2,526	2,176	49.46	47.47	51.06	45.85
Service	1,309	1,024	46.15	43.40	28.37	23.60
Professional Service	1,888	1,372	48.79	45.95	38.69	29.85
Personal Service (3)	785	610	43.05	40.03	18.23	15.24
Clerical	1,294	1,104	47.62	45.57	27.17	24.24
Laborers and Unskilled workers	412	337	28.80	23.32	14.31	14.45
	F E M A L E S					
	Average Earnings		Average Weeks Employed		Average Earnings per week employed	
	1931	1936	1931	1936	1931	1936
All Occupations	559	411	45.70	40.18	12.22	10.23
Agriculture	201	113	42.99	26.98	4.63	4.18
Manufacturing (1)	471	416	40.63	37.98	11.59	10.96
Transportation and Communication (2)	621	512	45.93	41.22	13.53	12.43
Trade	562	440	43.13	37.32	13.03	11.80
Finance, Insurance	1,171	1,095	49.52	48.00	23.65	22.61
Service	450	299	46.33	39.25	9.72	7.61
Professional Service	905	664	49.22	44.01	18.40	15.10
Personal Service (3)	259	166	45.14	37.53	5.73	4.42
Clerical	819	696	46.80	44.65	17.49	15.58
Laborers and Unskilled workers (4)	331	339	35.97	34.75	9.22	9.77

(1) Includes electric light and power.

(2) Includes warehousing and storage.

(3) Includes laundering, dyeing, cleaning and pressing.

(4) Not including laborers in agriculture, mining and logging.

APPENDIX C

TABLE 24.

FAMILIES OF WAGE-EARNERS, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF EARNINGS AND SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING TOTAL CHILDREN AND AVERAGE NUMBER PER FAMILY, PER CENT OF WIVES AND CHILDREN 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, EARNING, AVERAGE EARNINGS PER HEAD AND PER FAMILY, AVERAGE NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS AND DEPENDENT CHILDREN PER FAMILY FOR CANADA - 1931.

EARNINGS GROUPS	FAMILIES		CHILDREN AT HOME		PER CENT EARNING		AVERAGE EARNINGS		AVERAGE NUMBER DEPENDENTS PER FAMILY		FAMILIES		CHILDREN AT HOME		PER CENT OF CHILDREN		AVERAGE EARNINGS		AVERAGE NUMBER DEPENDENTS PER FAMILY											
	Number	Per Cent Distribution	Total	Average number per Family	Children 15 Years and over		Head	Family	Total	Children	Number	Per Cent Distribution	Total	Average number per Family	15 Years and over	Earning	Head	Family	Total	Children										
					Wives	and over															M	A	L	E	F	E	M	A	L	E
M A L E											F E M A L E																			
		%			%	%	\$	\$				%			%	\$	\$													
Total	1,137,924 ⁽¹⁾	100.00	2,349,114	2.06	3.01	53.83	1,185	1,366 ⁽²⁾	2.66	1.75	45,403 ⁽¹⁾	100.00	42,204	0.93	61.45	730	856 ⁽²⁾	0.74	0.68											
Less than \$50.	26,168	2.30	46,040	1.76	9.34	68.36	(3)	279	2.06	1.27	868	1.91	892	1.03	68.25	(3)	103	0.85	0.81											
\$50 - 449	191,019	16.79	384,409	2.01	4.98	60.65	274	400	2.53	1.70	15,451	34.03	19,386	1.25	64.76	262	395	0.96	0.93											
450 - 949	288,977	25.40	636,535	2.20	3.60	58.08	691	859	2.77	1.87	14,184	31.24	13,533	0.95	62.21	670	825	0.73	0.68											
950 - 1,449	285,365	25.08	610,573	2.14	2.51	55.31	1,164	1,365	2.75	1.80	8,409	18.52	4,374	0.52	52.63	1,145	1,237	0.47	0.40											
1,450-1,949	161,526	14.19	326,525	2.02	1.72	49.84	1,655	1,861	2.69	1.73	2,958	6.51	975	0.33	50.00	1,649	1,741	0.32	0.24											
1,950-2,949	98,571	8.66	188,575	1.91	1.04	42.74	2,283	2,495	2.64	1.66	1,218	2.68	331	0.27	41.04	2,251	2,327	0.31	0.20											
2,950-4,949	40,442	3.55	73,520	1.82	0.62	34.91	3,482	3,678	2.59	1.60	182	0.40	52	0.29	48.00	3,324	3,406	0.32	0.22											
4,950-6,949	7,785	0.68	14,192	1.82	0.49	26.58	5,485	5,674	2.63	1.63	25	0.06	6	0.24	100.00	5,404	5,454	0.44	0.12											
6,950-9,949	2,628	0.23	4,888	1.86	0.33	24.50	7,865	8,045	2.66	1.67	5	0.01	2	0.40	-	8,180	8,180	0.40	0.40											
9,950 and over	2,002	0.18	3,812	1.90	0.27	19.99	14,012	14,238	2.72	1.73	1	(4)	-	-	-	10,000	10,000	-	-											

(1) Families in which the earnings of head were not stated are included in total, but are not shown separately.

(2) Estimated average earnings.

(3) Earnings of heads, when less than \$50.00, were not tabulated.

(4) Less than 1 of 1 %

TABLE 25.

FOR MANITOBA - 1931.

- (1) Families in which the earnings of head were not stated are included in total, but are not shown separately.
- (2) Estimated average earnings.
- (3) Earnings of heads, when less than \$50.00, were not tabulated.
- (4) Less than 1 of 170.
100

(4) Less than 1 of 170.

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 26 (a)

FAMILIES OF WAGE-EARNERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF EARNINGS AND SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY
POPULATION, INCLUDING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND ADULT RELATIVES DEPENDENT ON HEAD,
NUMBER OF HEADS, WIVES AND CHILDREN EARNING AND THEIR EARNINGS, AND FAMILY
DEPENDENTS, INCLUDING CHILDREN, FOR CANADA, 1931.

<u>FAMILIES WITH FEMALE HEAD.</u>		<u>PERSONS IN FAMILY</u>						<u>PERSONS IN FAMILY EARNING AND EARNINGS REPORTED</u>				<u>FAMILY DEPENDENTS</u>	
		<u>CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME.</u>						<u>HEADS</u>		<u>CHILDREN</u>			
		<u>OWN CHILDREN</u>											
<u>EARNINGS GROUP</u>	<u>Families</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>7 - 14 Years</u>	<u>15 Years and over</u>	<u>Guard- ianship children</u>	<u>Adult Relatives</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Earnings \$</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Earnings \$</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Children</u>
Total	45,403	89,940	42,204(1)	15,248	18,151	1,641	2,333	45,403	31,589,400	11,153	5,279,700	33,384	31,051
None (2)	505	920	387	121	144	23	28	505	-	98	50,840	317	289
\$ 1- 49	363	872	505	190	130	6	4	363	-	89	31,410	420	416
50- 449	15,451	35,286	19,386	7,069	7,716	600	449	15,451	4,045,900	4,997	1,887,170	14,838	14,389
450- 949	14,184	28,467	13,533	4,946	6,321	485	750	14,184	9,505,200	3,932	2,024,150	10,351	9,601
950-1,449	8,409	13,388	4,374	1,604	1,959	328	605	8,409	9,629,200	1,031	710,190	3,948	3,343
1,450-1,949	2,958	4,194	975	282	550	81	261	2,958	4,876,600	275	252,110	961	700
1,950-2,949	1,218	1,685	331	84	212	22	136	1,218	2,741,600	87	85,780	380	244
2,950-4,949	182	253	52	17	25	7	19	182	604,900	12	13,760	59	40
4,950-6,949	25	39	6	-	3	2	8	25	135,100	3	1,250	11	3
6,950-9,949	5	7	2	1	1	-	-	5	40,900	-	-	2	2
9,950 and over	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	10,000	-	-	-	-
Not Stated	2,102	4,828	2,653	934	1,090	87	73	2,102	-	629	223,040	2,097	2,024

(1) Children under 7 years of age are included in the total, but not shown separately.

(2) This group contains wage-earners reporting no earnings on account of 52 weeks of unemployment.

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 26 (b)

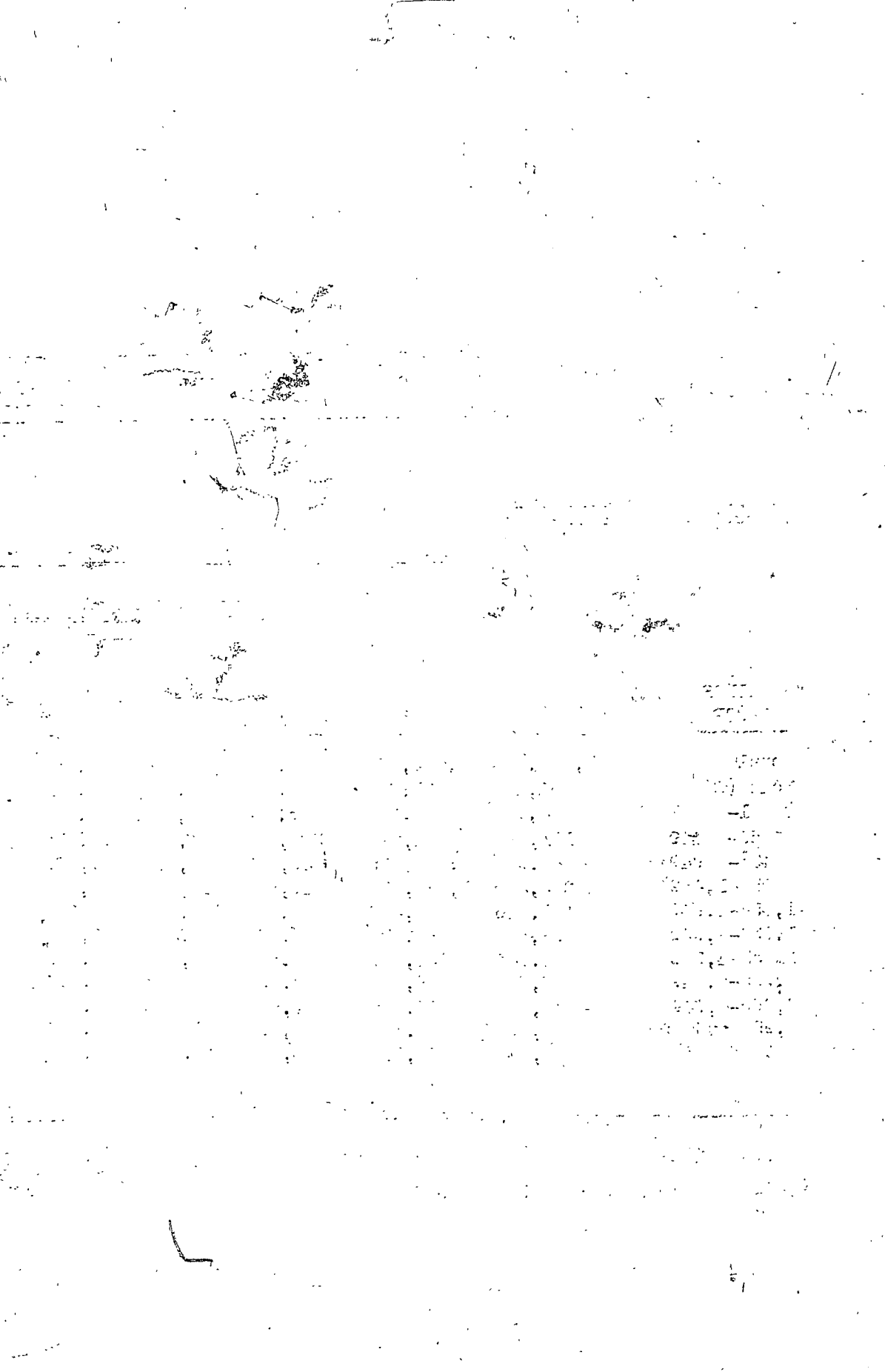
FAMILIES OF WAGE-EARNERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF EARNINGS AND SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY POPULATION, INCLUDING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND ADULT RELATIVES DEPENDENT ON HEAD, NUMBER OF HEADS, WIVES, AND CHILDREN EARNING AND THEIR EARNINGS, AND FAMILY DEPENDENTS, INCLUDING CHILDREN, FOR CANADA, 1931.

FAMILIES WITH MALE HEADS.

EARNINGS GROUP	PERSONS IN FAMILY								PERSONS IN FAMILY EARNING AND EARNINGS REPORTED							
	CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME								PERSONS IN FAMILY EARNING AND EARNINGS REPORTED							
	OWN CHILDREN															
	Families	Total	Total	7 - 14 Years	15 Years and over	Guardianship Children	Adult Relatives		HEADS		WIVES		CHILDREN		FAMILY DEPENDENTS	
									Total	Earnings	Total	Number reporting earnings	Earnings	Total	Earnings	Children
Total	1,137,924	4,560,773	2,349,114 ⁽¹⁾	831,279	668,858	28,674	39,872		1,137,924	1,308,957,000	31,072	18,579	9,586,160	360,079	174,906,790	1,989,035
None (2)	22,414	81,787	39,677	12,687	16,703	506	634		22,414	-	1,794	926	440,740	11,430	5,354,250	28,247
\$ 1- 49	3,754	13,257	6,363	2,090	2,068	107	119		3,754	-	269	164	56,810	1,402	486,870	4,961
50- 449	191,019	741,876	384,409	129,620	99,312	5,949	5,162		191,019	52,392,000	8,034	5,109	1,630,790	60,231	19,653,970	324,178
450- 949	288,977	1,196,375	636,535	222,807	167,979	7,816	8,728		288,977	199,677,800	9,437	5,868	2,699,240	97,567	40,778,650	538,968
950-1,449	285,365	1,171,394	610,573	217,392	173,056	6,896	9,795		285,365	332,242,600	6,674	3,864	2,476,620	95,720	48,669,910	514,853
1,450-1,949	161,526	646,327	326,525	120,190	95,748	3,560	6,483		161,526	267,355,800	2,613	1,525	1,270,430	47,724	28,635,550	278,801
1,950-2,949	98,571	384,724	188,575	70,337	59,452	1,943	4,518		98,571	225,066,000	972	581	594,590	25,412	18,257,270	163,163
2,950-4,949	40,442	154,371	73,520	27,262	25,606	703	2,242		40,442	140,800,900	238	136	161,410	8,940	7,051,740	64,580
4,950-6,949	7,785	29,807	14,192	5,261	5,616	145	512		7,785	42,700,400	36	22	34,840	1,493	1,304,330	12,699
6,950-9,949	2,628	10,115	4,888	1,794	2,033	40	155		2,628	20,699,200	8	6	6,460	498	428,350	4,390
9,950 and over	2,002	7,798	3,812	1,374	1,776	40	120		2,002	28,052,300	5	2	950	355	413,550	3,457
Not Stated	33,441	122,942	60,045	20,448	19,509	969	1,404		33,441	-	992	376	213,280	9,307	3,872,350	50,738

(1) Children under 7 years of age are included in the total, but not shown separately.

(2) This group contains wage-earners reporting no earnings on account of 52 weeks of unemployment.



APPENDIX C.

TABLE 27(a)

FAMILIES OF WAGE-EARNERS, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF EARNINGS AND SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY POPULATION, INCLUDING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND ADULT RELATIVES OF HEAD. NUMBER OF HEADS, WIVES, AND CHILDREN EARNING AND THEIR EARNINGS AND FAMILY DEPENDENTS, INCLUDING CHILDREN FOR MANITOBA. 1931.

FAMILIES WITH FEMALE HEAD

Earnings Group	Families	Total	PERSONS IN FAMILY				
			CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME				
			OWN CHILDREN				
			15 Years and over				
			7 - 14 Years	15 Years and over	Guardian-ship Children	Adult Relatives	
Total	2932	5733	2672(1)	998	1112	120	129
None (2)	49	89	37	10	16	3	3
\$1.00 - \$49.00	33	79	46	15	14	1	-
\$50.00 - \$149.00	911	2096	1161	463	420	22	24
\$150.00 - \$249.00	841	1619	741	282	334	39	37
\$250.00 - \$349.00	611	1032	387	136	188	35	35
\$350.00 - \$449.00	260	376	98	20	64	12	18
\$450.00 - \$549.00	84	125	30	5	23	1	11
\$550.00 - \$649.00	10	14	3	2	-	-	1
Not Stated	133	302	169	65	53	7	-

PERSONS IN FAMILY EARNING AND EARNINGS REPORTED

HEADS		CHILDREN		FAMILY DEPENDENTS	
Total	Earnings	Total	Earnings	Total	Children
	\$		\$		
2932	2174900	625	334190	2175	2047
49	-	9	580	31	28
33	-	9	5140	37	37
911	217500	241	85160	944	920
841	587700	184	97310	594	557
611	709100	110	71540	312	277
260	430400	34	55370	82	64
84	196200	10	7710	31	20
10	34000	-	-	4	3
133	-	28	11380	141	141

- (1) Children under 7 years of age are included in the total but not shown separately.
- (2) This group contains wage-earners reporting no earnings on account of 52 weeks of unemployment.

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 27.(b)

FAMILIES OF WAGE-EARNERS, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF EARNINGS AND SEX
OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY POPULATION, INCLUDING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND
ADULT RELATIVES OF HEAD, NUMBER OF HEADS, WIVES AND CHILDREN EARNING
AND THEIR EARNINGS, AND FAMILY DEPENDENTS, INCLUDING
CHILDREN FOR ILNITOB. 1 9 3 1.

<u>FAMILIES WITH MALE HEAD</u>			<u>PERSONS IN FAMILY</u>				
			<u>CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME</u>				
			<u>OWN CHILDREN</u>				
<u>EARNINGS</u> <u>GROUP</u>	<u>Families</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>7 -14</u> <u>Years</u>	<u>15 Years</u> <u>and over</u>	<u>Guard-</u> <u>ianship</u> <u>Children</u>	<u>Adult</u> <u>Relative</u>
Total	71672	278881	139600	(1) 51878	42322	1579	2129
None (2)	1802	6765	3355	1159	1277	32	31
\$1.00-\$49.00	351	1243	590	220	169	5	3
\$50.00-\$449.00	13461	52495	27190	9717	6485	336	246
\$450.00-\$949.00	13305	52401	26783	10031	7448	302	287
\$950.00-\$1449.00	17771	70647	35798	13647	11035	412	506
\$1450.00-\$1949.00	11432	43815	21235	8025	6972	223	405
\$1950.00-\$2949.00	7209	27200	12843	4810	4543	132	341
\$2950.00-\$4949.00	3151	12184	5848	2163	2210	60	180
\$4950.00-\$6949.00	590	2220	1033	372	446	12	37
\$6950.00-\$9949.00	209	835	413	146	177	4	16
\$9950.00 and over	171	680	340	119	160	2	9
Not stated	2220	8396	4172	1469	1400	59	68

PERSONS IN FAMILY EARNING AND EARNINGS REPORTED

<u>HEADS</u>		<u>WIVES</u>			<u>CHILDREN</u>		<u>FAMILY DEPENDENTS</u>	
<u>Total</u>	<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Number</u> <u>Reporting</u>	<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Earnings</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Children</u>
	\$			\$		\$		
71672	87339200	2182	1200	607350	20688	10297390	184339	118912
1802	-	147	64	30310	795	344090	4021	2560
351	-	25	15	5490	103	19860	764	487
13461	3446300	676	402	114780	3461	1082740	34897	23729
13305	9194800	486	269	118910	3832	1600950	34778	22951
17771	21011600	489	247	160350	5543	2826360	46844	30255
11432	18992800	197	117	101370	5348	2048420	28838	17887
7209	16570800	85	48	49020	1987	1315010	17919	10856
3151	10980800	22	15	16460	779	599290	8232	5069
590	3263800	1	1	1800	125	119050	1504	908
209	1675400	2	2	380	42	35400	582	371
171	2202900	-	-	-	34	40270	475	306
2220	-	52	20	10460	639	265950	5485	3533

(1) See Table 27 (a)
(2) " " " "



APPENDIX C.

TABLE 28 (a)

FAMILIES OF WAGE-EARNERS, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF EARNINGS AND
SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY POPULATION, INCLUDING THE NUMBER OF
CHILDREN AND ADULT RELATIVES OF HEAD, NUMBER OF CHILDREN
EARNING AND THEIR EARNINGS, AND FAMILY DEPENDENTS,
INCLUDING CHILDREN, FOR WINNIPEG - 1931.

FAMILIES WITH FEMALE HEAD

EARNINGS GROUP	PERSONS IN FAMILY						
	CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME						
	Families	Total	Total	OWN CHILDREN		Guard- ianship Children	Adult Relatives
				7-14 Years	15 Years and over		
Total	1837	3418	1487(1)	515	742	69	94
None (2)	36	68	29	6	14	2	3
\$1.00-\$49.00	16	37	21	6	8	1	-
\$50.00-\$449.00	421	945	506	182	237	14	18
\$450.00-\$949.00	543	1044	477	177	240	17	24
\$950.00-\$1449.00	459	764	282	97	147	22	23
\$1450.00-\$1949.00	227	326	83	18	52	12	16
\$1950.00-\$2949.00	72	107	26	5	19	1	9
\$2950.00-\$4949.00	9	13	3	2	-	-	1
Not Stated	54	114	60	22	25	-	-

PERSONS IN FAMILY EARNING AND EARNINGS REPORTED

<u>HEADS</u>		<u>CHILDREN</u>		<u>FAMILY DEPENDENTS</u>	
<u>Total</u>	<u>Earnings</u> \$	<u>Total</u>	<u>Earnings</u> \$	<u>Total</u>	<u>Children</u>
1837	1596400	438	245940	1143	1049
36	-	9	580	23	20
16	-	7	4890	14	14
421	113900	142	54420	382	364
543	371800	140	79770	361	337
459	535000	89	61500	216	193
227	375900	31	31570	68	52
72	169800	8	6270	27	18
9	30000	-	-	4	3
54	-	12	6940	48	48

- (1) Children under 7 years of age are included in the total, but not shown separately.
- (2) This group contains wage-earners reporting no earnings on account of 52 weeks of unemployment.

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 28(b)

FAMILIES OF WAGE-EARNERS, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF EARNINGS AND SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY POPULATION, INCLUDING THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND ADULT RELATIVES OF HEAD; NUMBER OF HEADS, WIVES, AND CHILDREN EARNING AND THEIR EARNINGS, AND FAMILY DEPENDENTS, INCLUDING CHILDREN, FOR WINNIPEG.

1931.

EARNINGS GROUP	PERSONS IN FAMILY						
	CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME						
	Families	Total	Total	OWN CHILDREN		Guard-ianship Children	Adult Relative
				7-14 Years	15 Years and over		
Total	36357	136126	64662 (1)	23162	23370	625	1203
None (2)	1238	4622	2267	780	899	12	21
\$1.00-\$49.00	165	565	243	80	62	-	-
\$50.00-\$449.00	4344	15872	7534	2594	2360	63	70
\$450.00-\$949.00	6360	24164	11775	4281	3881	109	142
\$950.00-\$1449.00	9362	35640	17170	6311	6092	170	276
\$1450.00-\$1949.00	6455	23886	11107	3994	4178	116	245
\$1950.00-\$2949.00	4484	16451	7508	2681	2948	78	227
\$2950.00-\$4949.00	2201	8329	3912	1381	1555	44	130
\$4950.00-\$6949.00	493	1828	833	283	370	11	36
\$6950.00-\$9949.00	182	728	359	126	160	3	15
\$9950.00 and over	155	610	304	103	151	2	7
Not Stated	918	3440	1650	548	714	17	33

PERSONS IN FAMILY EARNING AND EARNINGS REPORTED

HEADS		WIVES			CHILDREN		FAMILY DEPENDENTS	
Total	Earnings	Total	under reporting		Total	Earnings	Total	Children
			Earnings	Earnings				
36357	51699200	1526	768	434100	12198	6929970	86045	52464
1238	-	120	49	24540	551	245080	2713	1716
165	-	17	9	2600	33	10950	341	210
4344	1157800	375	175	63720	1358	540150	9795	6176
6360	4457500	350	188	84890	2150	1009090	15304	9625
9362	11073300	385	192	122060	3322	1825820	22571	13848
6455	10741800	156	90	77350	2231	1452290	15044	8876
4484	10338200	68	38	37920	1427	985640	10472	6081
2201	7731500	16	11	11970	588	474100	5524	3324
493	2720400	-	-	-	117	112440	1218	716
182	1455100	2	2	380	39	35400	505	320
155	2023600	-	-	-	30	38490	425	274
918	-	37	14	8670	352	200520	2133	1298

(1) See Table 28 (a)

(2) " " " "



PRIVATE FAMILIES, WITH OR WITHOUT CHILDREN, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO CONJUGAL
CONDITION AND SEX OF HEAD FOR CANADA, - MANITOBA - AND - WINNIPEG. - 1921.

NUMERICAL DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND CONJUGAL CONDITION OF HEADS OF FAMILIES.

	MALE HEADS					FEMALE HEADS				
	TOTAL	SINGLE	MARRIED	WIDOWED	DIVORCED	TOTAL	SINGLE	MARRIED	WIDOWED	DIVORCED
<u>CANADA</u>	1,817,030	132,180	1,607,575	75,522	1,753	184,482	26,884	26,405	128,877	2,516
Rural families	916,404	99,208	776,454	39,704	1,038	61,372	6,733	9,730	44,315	594
With Children	626,608	491	600,763	25,042	312	42,490	167	8,323	33,532	468
Without Children	289,796	98,717	175,691	14,662	726	18,882	6,566	1,407	10,783	126
Urban families	900,626	32,972	831,121	35,818	715	123,110	20,151	16,675	84,562	1,722
With Children	643,171	214	616,446	26,192	319	76,985	213	13,674	61,791	1,307
Without Children	257,455	32,758	214,675	9,626	396	46,125	19,938	3,001	22,771	415
<u>MANITOBA</u>	123,682	9,818	110,077	3,699	88	10,272	1,161	1,914	7,036	161
Rural families	68,999	7,729	59,042	2,176	52	3,730	241	797	2,662	30
With Children	49,471	47	47,988	1,416	20	2,928	12	707	2,182	27
Without Children	19,528	7,682	11,054	760	32	802	229	90	480	3
Urban families	54,683	2,089	51,035	1,523	36	6,542	920	1,117	4,374	131
With Children	39,663	12	38,574	1,059	18	4,535	17	909	3,503	106
Without Children	15,020	2,077	12,461	464	18	2,007	903	208	871	25
<u>WINNIPEG, MANITOBA</u>	37,807	1,381	35,464	936	26	4,600	708	794	2,991	107
With Children	27,363	6	26,657	685	15	3,243	10	659	2,489	85
Without Children	10,444	1,375	8,807	251	11	1,357	698	135	502	22

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 29 (b)

FEMALES, GAINFULLY OCCUPIED, BY OCCUPATION GROUP
AND CONJUGAL CONDITION, CANADA - 1921

<u>OCCUPATION GROUP</u>	<u>TOTAL (1)</u>	<u>SINGLE</u>	<u>MARRIED</u>	<u>WIDOWED AND DIVORCED</u>
All occupations	490,150	402,893	35,202	51,956
Agriculture	17,883	2,938	2,087	12,833
Fishing and logging	51	21	9	21
Mining	58	50	4	4
Manufacturing	89,813	76,614	6,417	6,768
Construction	91	64	13	14
Transportation	15,048	14,185	478	384
Trade	47,413	39,263	3,925	4,216
Finance	314	214	41	58
Service	226,783	182,250	19,638	24,858
Professional	92,754	85,959	3,448	3,334
Personal	133,028	95,685	15,995	21,325
Clerical	90,612	85,989	2,372	2,243
Laborers	441	104	48	289

I. Total includes conjugal condition "Not Stated".

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 30 (a)

GAINFULLY OCCUPIED BY CONJUGAL CONDITION
AGE AND SEX, MANITOBA - 1931

<u>AGES</u>	<u>M A L E</u>			<u>F E M A L E</u>		
	<u>SINGLE</u>	<u>MARRIED</u>	<u>WIDOWED AND DIVORCED</u>	<u>SINGLE</u>	<u>MARRIED</u>	<u>WIDOWED AND DIVORCED</u>
All Ages	88,941	130,384	6,198	36,160	4,827	3,915
10-17 Yrs	11,036	15	-	3,156	19	3
18-19 "	11,790	85	3	5,921	73	4
20-24 "	26,456	3,704	33	13,717	567	46
25-34 "	22,783	27,733	329	8,376	1,472	322
35-44 "	8,570	39,499	931	2,790	1,372	884
45-54 "	5,142	34,730	1,687	1,523	864	1,184
55-64 "	2,292	17,395	1,739	534	348	935
65-69 "	564	4,528	761	84	62	320
70 Years and over	308	2,695	715	59	50	217

APPENDIX C:

TABLE 30 (b)

GAINFULLY OCCUPIED FEMALES BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS
AND CONJUGAL CONDITION, MANITOBA - 1931.

	<u>SINGLE</u>	<u>MARRIED</u>	<u>WIDOWED AND DIVORCED</u>	<u>PERCENT MARRIED WIDOWED AND DIVORCED</u>
All occupations	36,160	4,827	3,915	19.46
Bookbinders	90	11	3	13.46
Bookkeepers, cashiers	1,344	74	60	9.06
Charworkers, cleaners	74	108	82	71.96
Confectionery and biscuit makers	57	9	2	16.17
Cooks	261	116	53	39.30
Domestic Servants	9,389	737	402	10.81
Dressmakers	459	104	100	30.76
Furriers	91	7	7	13.33
Hairdressers, manicurists	352	82	32	24.46
Ironers and pressers	82	28	6	29.31
Knitters	31	2	2	11.42
Laborers and unskilled workers	214	38	24	22.46
Matrons, housekeepers	739	480	440	55.46
Milliners	85	18	9	24.10
Nurses, graduate	1,223	59	63	9.07
Nurses, practical	167	31	33	+
Operatives, boots, shoes	2	11	-	-
Other clerical (office clerks)	1,607	65	69	7.69
Packers, wrappers	541	22	3	4.41
Paper, box, bag and envelope makers	84	8	2	10.63
Sale women	2,918	198	142	10.43
Sewing machinists (factory)	539	78	30	16.69
Sewers, seamstresses (not in factory)	250	27	34	19.61
Spinners	5	-	-	-
Stenographers, typists	5,297	212	115	5.81
Teachers - school	3,983	190	115	7.11
Telegraph operators	66	1	2	4.34
Telephone operators	691	42	29	9.32
Waitresses	1,139	147	42	14.23
Weavers	1	-	-	-

+ - Less than 1%.

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APPENDIX C:

TABLE 31 (a)

WAGE-EARNERS, 14 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY AMOUNT
OF EARNINGS DURING THE CENSUS YEAR, CONJUGAL CON-
DITION, AGE, AND SEX - FOR MANITOBA - - 1936.

AGE AND EARNINGS GROUP	TOTAL		SINGLE		MARRIED	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All ages (2)	118,123	38,426 ⁽¹⁾	45,813	34,318	68,703	2,035
No earnings (3)	9,764	1,328	3,764	1,116	5,523	60
\$1 - 49	5,105	3,907	3,362	3,600	1,616	189
\$50 - 449	39,689	17,696	23,572	15,810	15,073	999
\$450 - 949	24,483	11,661	9,292	10,428	14,551	633
\$950 - 1449	21,469	2,951	3,783	2,599	16,966	112
\$1450 - 1949	8,908	535	1,666	473	7,548	21
\$1950 - 2949	4,891	108	333	93	4,406	4
\$2950 - 4949	1,823	9	97	7	1,666	1
\$4950 and over	634	3	16	3	592	-
Earnings not stated	1,357	228	528	189	762	16
14-19 years	6,602	6,250	6,571	6,214	31	32
No earnings (3)	145	71	141	70	4	-
\$1 - \$49	1,297	1,926	1,295	1,916	2	89
\$50 - 449	4,492	3,819	4,473	3,794	19	23
\$450 - 949	590	399	585	399	5	-
\$950 - 1449	30	6	29	6	1	-
\$1450- 1949	3	-	3	-	-	-
1950- 2949	-	-	-	-	-	-
\$2950 - 4949	-	-	-	-	-	-
\$4950 and over	-	-	-	-	-	-
Earnings not stated	45	29	45	29	-	-

(1) "Total" includes wage-earners of conjugal conditions "Widowed", "Divorced" and "Other and not stated". (2) A few wage-earners with age not stated are included in "All ages", but are not shown separately. (3) This group contains wage-earners with no employment during the census year.



APPENDIX C:

TABLE 31 (b)

AGE AND EARNINGS GROUP	TOTAL		SINGLE		MARRIED	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
20-44 years	72,319	28,928	34,096	26,348	37,320	1,604
No earnings(3)	5,276	1,060	2,496	930	2,682	49
\$1 - 49	2,792	1,866	1,789	1,652	979	148
\$50 - 449	27,378	12,753	17,118	11,557	9,944	790
\$450 - 949	16,694	10,389	8,068	9,567	8,448	514
\$950 - 1449	11,956	2,352	3,138	2,176	8,653	82
\$1450 - 1949	4,648	807	836	269	3,739	7
\$1950 - 2949	2,001	37	216	33	1,762	2
\$2950 - 4949	641	4	48	2	585	1
\$4950 and over	161	2	6	2	150	-
Earnings not stated	772	158	381	140	378	11
45-64 years	36,597	3,058	4,801	1,691	29,508	385
No earnings(3)	4,013	184	1,048	111	2,625	11
\$1 - 49	915	107	252	28	582	32
\$50 - 449	7,076	1,025	1,826	433	4,650	176
\$450 - 949	6,645	835	595	450	5,674	117
\$950 - 1449	9,063	577	604	408	7,977	30
\$1450 - 1949	4,097	223	221	180	3,679	13
\$1950 - 2949	2,777	70	113	60	2,550	1
\$2950 - 4949	1,116	4	47	4	1,027	-
\$4950 and over	438	1	10	1	411	-
Earnings not stated	457	32	85	16	333	5

(3) This group contains wage-earners with no employment during the census year.

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 31 (c)

<u>AGE AND EARNINGS GROUP</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>		<u>SINGLE</u>		<u>MARRIED</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
65 years and over	2,555	176	318	51	1,826	14
No earnings (3)	329	13	79	5	211	-
\$1 - 49	100	6	26	2	52	-
\$50 - 449	725	95	140	22	457	10
\$450 - 949	548	34	39	8	423	2
\$950 - 1449	415	15	11	8	331	-
\$1450 - 1949	159	5	6	4	129	1
\$1950 - 2949	111	1	4	-	92	1
\$2950 - 4949	65	1	2	1	53	-
\$4950 and over	35	-	-	-	31	-
Earnings not stated	68	6	11	1	47	-

(3.) This group contains wage-earners with no employment during the census year.

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 32 (a)

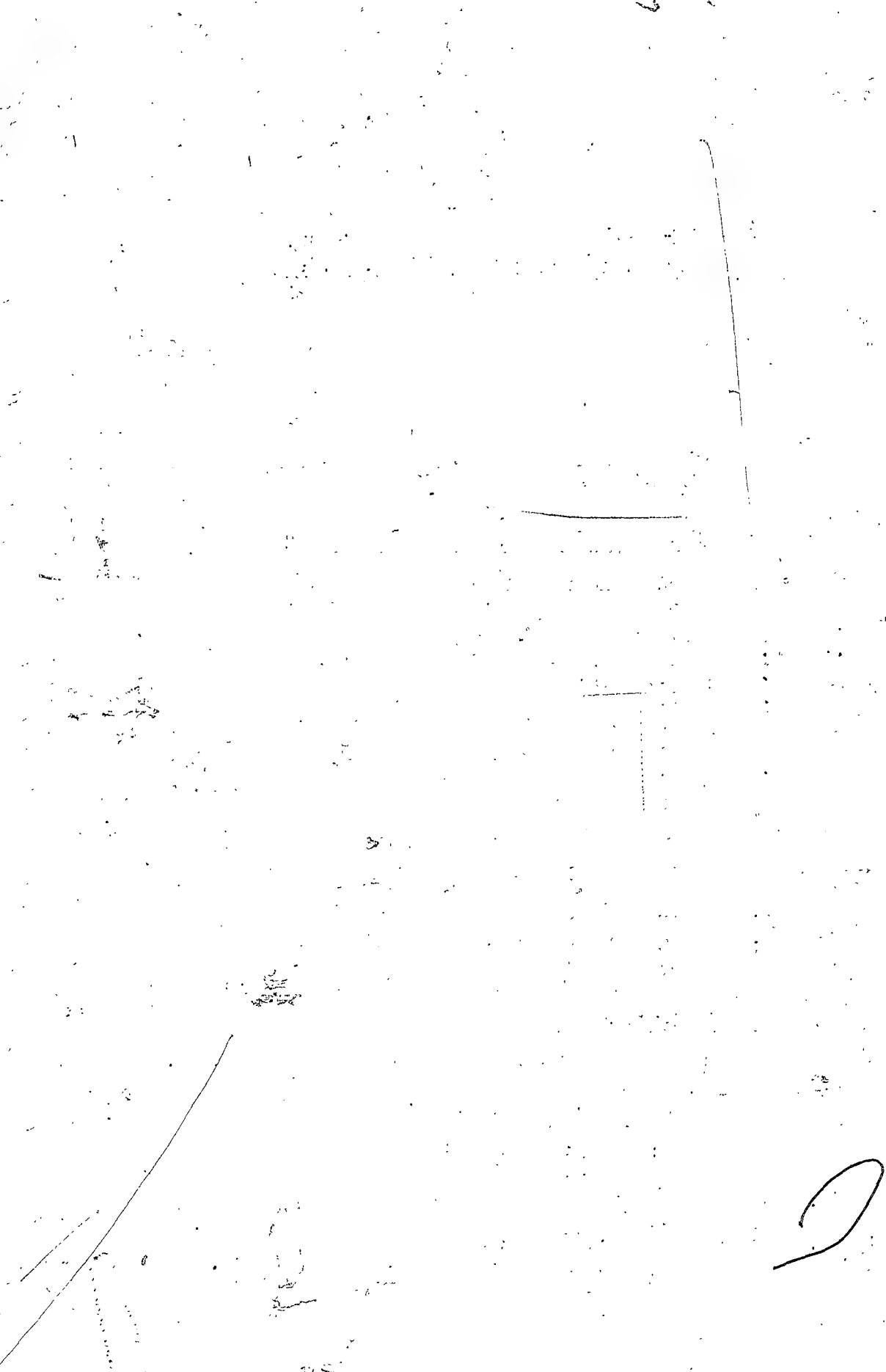
FEMALE WAGE-EARNER HEADS OF PRIVATE FAMILIES, BY EARNINGS GROUP
FOR CITY OF WINNIPEG, 1936.

EARNINGS GROUP	TOTAL FAMILIES OR HEADS	PERSONS IN FAMILY	EARNINGS OF HEAD \$	CHILDREN 24 YEARS OF AGE AND UNDER LIVING AT HOME					
				<u>UNDER 14 YEARS</u>		<u>14-24 YEARS</u>		AT SCHOOL	GAINFULLY OCCUPIED
				TOTAL	NUMBER	NUMBER	NUMBER		
Not on relief	732	1850	470500	976	332	240	644	237	279
No earnings	25	53	-	26	14	6	12	5	4
\$ 1.-\$ 249.	116	288	14900	153	65	38	88	28	41
250.- 449.	95	256	32800	149	63	48	86	24	44
450.- 949.	331	852	223400	451	148	114	303	110	130
950.- 1449.	123	302	142900	150	29	24	121	51	50
1450.- 1949.	22	53	36400	26	8	7	18	11	2
1950.- 2949.	7	16	16100	6	-	-	6	4	2
2950.- 4949.	1	3	4000	2	-	-	2	2	-
Not given	12	27	-	13	5	3	8	2	6
On relief	89	211	2800	120	80	48	40	18	10
No earnings	58	139	-	79	55	29	24	10	7
\$ 1.-\$ 249.	27	62	1300	35	23	17	12	5	2
250.- 449.	3	7	1000	4	-	-	4	3	1
450.- 949.	1	3	500	2	2	2	-	-	-

APPENDIX C. - TABLE 32 (b)

FEMALE WAGE-EARNER HEADS OF PRIVATE FAMILIES FOR BRANDON, ST. BONIFACE,
URBAN 5000-10,000 POPULATION, URBAN UNDER 5000, AND RURAL DIVISIONS
OF MANITOBA, 1936.

Brandon	22	56	10800	30	9	7	21	9	6
Boniface	42	115	24600	69	32	30	37	13	18
Urban 5,000-									
10,000	17	49	8000	28	12	7	16	9	7
Under 5,000	85	241	27900	148	71	53	77	39	28
Rural	377	949	99000	520	340	156	180	73	66



APPENDIX C.

TABLE 33.

WAGE-EARNERS BY AGE AND SEX SHOWING THE NUMBER AND PERCENT NOT AT WORK
ON JUNE 1st FOR THE PROVINCE OF MANITOBA, 1931 AND 1936.

<u>YEAR AND AGE</u>	<u>TOTAL WAGE-EARNERS</u>			<u>NUMBER NOT AT WORK</u>			<u>PERCENT NOT AT WORK</u>		
	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>MALES</u>	<u>FEMALES</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>MALES</u>	<u>FEMALES</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>MALES</u>	<u>FEMALES</u>
<u>1931</u>									
Total	170712	132863	37849	36265	31916	4349	21.24	24.02	11.49
14-15 Years	928	591	337	138	97	41	14.87	16.41	12.17
16-17 "	6234	3626	2608	1203	806	397	19.30	22.23	15.22
18-19 "	12657	6954	5703	2604	1735	869	20.57	24.95	15.24
20-24 "	33665	20212	13453	6867	5260	1607	20.40	26.02	11.95
25-34 "	42962	34048	8914	10001	9194	807	23.28	27.00	9.05
35-44 "	33393	29709	3684	6568	6264	304	19.67	21.08	8.25
45-54 "	26105	23961	2144	5166	4959	207	19.79	20.70	9.65
55-64 "	11196	10404	792	2725	2638	87	24.34	25.36	10.90
65-69 "	2431	2285	146	687	664	23	28.26	29.06	15.75
70 Years & over	1141	1073	68	306	299	7	26.82	27.87	10.29
<u>1936</u>									
Total	158407	119939	38468	31512	26847	4665	19.89	22.38	12.13
14-15 Years	613	345	268	63	33	30	10.28	9.57	11.19
16-17 "	3702	1893	1809	531	311	220	14.34	16.43	12.16
18-19 "	8572	4392	4180	1307	816	491	15.25	18.58	11.75
20-24 "	30749	17373	13376	5340	3648	1692	17.37	21.00	12.65
25-34 "	43156	31407	11749	8603	7219	1384	19.93	22.99	11.78
35-44 "	28449	24620	3829	6052	5607	445	21.27	22.77	11.62
45-54 "	26670	24501	2169	5508	5249	259	20.65	21.42	11.94
55-64 "	13656	12756	900	3410	3287	123	24.97	25.77	13.67
65-69 "	2129	1991	138	640	624	16	30.06	31.34	11.59
70 Years & over	646	610	36	52	50	2	8.05	8.20	5.56

APPENDIX C.

TABLE 34.

FEMALE HEADS OF PRIVATE FAMILIES, OTHER THAN WAGE-EARNERS, BY AGE, SHOWING FAMILY COMPOSITION, FOR THE CITIES OF WINNIPEG, BRANDON, AND ST. BONIFACE, URBAN 1,000 TO 10,000 POPULATION, URBAN UNDER 1,000, AND RURAL DIVISIONS OF THE PROVINCE OF MANITOBA. 1936.

AREA AND AGE	ALL FAMILIES		FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN, 24 YEARS AND UNDER, LIVING AT HOME						
			CHILDREN						
	TOTAL		TOTAL		UNDER 14 YEARS		14 - 24 YEARS		GAINFULLY OCCUPIED
	OR HEADS	IN FAMILY	OR HEADS	TOTAL	NUMBER	SCHOOL AT	NUMBER	SCHOOL AT	
WINNIPEG	5,100	15,548	3,514	6,924	2,214	1,634	4,710	1,362	2,168
Under 25 Years	85	186	85	101	101	4	-	-	-
25 - 34 "	418	1,138	417	718	668	392	50	37	6
35 - 44 "	806	2,715	797	1,880	849	697	1,031	455	288
45 - 54 "	1,381	4,699	1,244	2,687	492	456	2,195	617	1,076
55 - 64 "	1,260	3,855	823	1,352	78	59	1,274	214	706
65 - 69 "	423	1,116	107	131	17	17	114	19	72
70 Years & over	724	1,830	39	51	8	8	43	19	19
Age not stated	3	9	3	4	1	1	3	1	1
BRANDON	315	938	207	430	144	109	286	92	119
Under 25 Years	7	15	7	8	8	-	-	-	-
25 - 34 "	18	49	17	30	26	19	4	2	2
35 - 44 "	36	129	36	92	52	40	40	23	10
45 - 54 "	80	278	76	177	47	41	130	46	50
55 - 64 "	92	273	59	107	7	6	100	16	51
65 - 69 "	26	66	6	9	2	1	7	2	5
70 Years & over	56	128	6	7	2	2	5	3	1
ST. BONIFACE	280	984	188	498	181	132	317	97	143
Under 25 Years	5	12	5	7	7	-	-	-	-
25 - 34 "	24	73	24	49	46	24	3	-	1
35 - 44 "	36	179	36	142	76	62	66	22	20
45 - 54 "	76	298	69	205	40	34	165	60	74
55 - 64 "	68	228	44	81	7	7	74	14	41
65 - 69 "	26	78	6	7	1	1	6	-	5
70 Years & over	45	116	4	7	4	4	3	1	2



APPENDIX C.

TABLE 34. (Cont'd.)

	ALL FAMILIES			FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN, 24 YEARS AND UNDER, LIVING AT HOME					
				CHILDREN					
	TOTAL FAMILIES OR HEADS	PERSONS IN FAMILY	TOTAL FAMILIES OR HEADS	TOTAL NUMBER	UNDER 14 YEARS		14 - 24 YEARS		
					AT SCHOOL	AT SCHOOL	AT SCHOOL	CAREFULLY OCCUPIED	
URBAN 1,000-10,000	824	2,797	615	1,528	649	456	879	293	360
Under 25 Years	18	40	18	22	22	3	-	-	-
25 - 34 "	74	253	74	177	166	94	11	7	-
35 - 44 "	141	615	139	470	257	194	213	89	62
45 - 54 "	212	831	200	555	150	126	405	137	175
55 - 64 "	190	597	140	247	34	24	213	49	107
65 - 69 "	59	144	16	21	6	4	15	1	9
70 Years & over	150	317	28	36	14	11	22	10	7
URBAN UNDER 1,000	529	1,668	367	834	352	270	482	218	162
Under 25 Years	8	21	8	13	13	-	-	-	-
25 - 34 "	29	97	28	67	65	33	2	1	-
35 - 44 "	80	328	78	245	147	119	98	57	26
45 - 54 "	133	477	124	315	98	95	217	102	79
55 - 64 "	121	365	90	147	19	14	128	43	45
65 - 69 "	52	133	14	18	5	4	13	3	7
70 Years & over	106	249	25	29	5	5	24	12	5
RURAL	5,748	20,169	4,165	10,481	4,591	2,877	5,890	1,313	2,933
Under 25 Years	192	467	192	274	267	7	7	-	4
25 - 34 "	522	1,837	519	1,304	1,224	570	80	41	15
35 - 44 "	791	3,617	789	2,802	1,639	1,119	1,163	391	474
45 - 54 "	1,296	5,467	1,238	3,683	1,137	945	2,546	595	1,286
55 - 64 "	1,370	4,554	1,019	1,899	209	154	1,690	235	942
65 - 69 "	590	1,684	234	306	46	33	260	25	146
70 Years & over	987	2,543	174	213	69	49	144	26	66